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Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaking Student Teachers

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Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaking Student Teachers

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Dedication

To my parents, Dan and Maureen Conroy, for being my first and finest teachers; their love and encouragement cultivated my passion for teaching and life-long learning.

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Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaking Student Teachers

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The purpose of this case study was to examine how three undergraduate, preservice foreign language teachers' motives, sense of teacher identity, use and appropriation of teaching resources developed during the student teaching experience. Central to this study was an examination of participants' beliefs about language learning and teaching, their motivations as language learners and teachers, and beliefs about target language use.

Data were collected using student teachers' interviews, blogs, lesson plans, and artifacts design from the student teachers. The cooperating teachers and a university supervisor were also interviewed. Triangulation and case study analysis (Merriam, 2009; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009) revealed patterns in the student teachers' backgrounds such as their successes as language learners, their high levels of motivation to become language teachers, and their desire to use a good deal of target language in teaching.

Results indicated that the student teaching experience was highly impacted by individual differences among the student teachers, the role of the cooperating teacher and context of the host classroom, and the requirements of the student teaching program. The student teachers were highly reflective on their teaching beliefs and professional identity development throughout the student teaching experience and all three participants identified clear goals for their first teaching job. Additionally, the requirements of the university and certification considerations caused the participants to emphasize target language, cultural knowledge, and teaching behaviors during their student teaching experience.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

"Wisdom is meaningless until our own experience has given it meaning..."

- Bergen Evans

The process of becoming a language teacher is complex, involving an understanding of educational theories, pedagogical practices, and linguistic and cultural knowledge. Hammadou and Bernhardt (1987) eloquently describe the position of language teaching in comparison to other content areas, explaining:

> Being a foreign language teacher is in many ways unique within the profession of teaching. Becoming a foreign language teacher, too, is a different process from that which other future teachers experience. This reality is rooted in the subject matter of foreign language itself. In foreign language teaching, the content and the process of learning the content are the same. In other words, in foreign language teaching, the medium is the message (p. 301).

Becoming a language teacher, then, requires a strong proficiency in the content—the target language (target language)—as well as an understanding of how to deliver that content to students appropriately and powerfully.

Further complicating the matter of becoming a language teacher is the additional need to meet institutional and state guidelines toward certification. In light of numerous program standards and the increasing influence of professional organization position statements, preservice language teachers (PSLTs) are tasked with negotiating the many conversations on how best to become a successful language teacher. Nonetheless, there exists relatively little research on how these PSLTs become practicing teachers, particularly during the culminating student teaching experience. A comparatively greater

body of research on both the development English teachers globally and the development of other so-called "core" content teachers in the United States demonstrates the need for greater understanding of how PSLTs in the United States become inservice educators. To accomplish the task of better understanding the development of PSLTs, it is important to examine the intersecting areas of their own biographies as language learners/users, how they are educated in their area of specialization, and how the field experience may contribute to their professional identities as teachers.

LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CONTEXT

Many foreign language[1] (FL) teachers in the United States are non-native speakers (NNS) of the language they teach. That is, most speak English as their home and social languages and they have intentionally studied the target language they teach. The participants in this study are also NNSs to reflect the context of numerous FL teachers in the United States and to explore participants' layered experiences learning both content (i.e. language and culture) as well as learning how to teach. While institutions and states have requirements about the content knowledge preservice teachers must acquire (e.g. required linguistics courses, oral communication proficiency levels), it would be incorrect to assume that preservice teachers' language learning has reached an end-point by the time of the student teaching experience or certification conferral (Bayliss & Vignola, 2007; Kramsch, 1986). As Edstrom, a university Spanish professor and native English

[1] The term "foreign language" will be used in this dissertation though it is is problematic; see Larsen-Freeman & Freeman (2008) for a discussion.

speaker, shared there remain linguistic concerns for even high-level instructors. She described the experience by sharing:

> Both my nonnative grammatical system and nonnative vocabulary seemed to be an issue, to some degree, in almost every class session. I sometimes wondered if my greatest contribution as a nonnative teacher was putting my students on alert, thereby priming them to look for errors (p. 29, 2005).

If highly educated, accomplished language instructors find their positionality as a NNS to be a concerning factor in their teaching, this may also be a notable factor shaping the student teaching experiences of preservice teachers.

Over the past several decades, much research has surrounded the "native speaker question," particularly in the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) context on a global scale. The concern over a NNS's level of proficiency and how closely it approximates the "native-like" goal (or not) is discussed in much research (Braine, 2005; Canagarajah, 1999; Pessoa & Sacchi, 2002) in the TEFL and FL fields. In the United States, a more recent trend has sought to establish clear proficiency levels through standardized language testing as part of preservice teachers' certification requirements (e.g. Donato, 2009). Due to the more recent implementation of United States proficiency testing, however, far less research exists on the experience of becoming a NNS language teacher in a high-stakes certification atmosphere.

While there are certainly particular challenges or concerns surrounding the NNS teacher, there are also scholars who locate the NNS in a more positive position. A major turning point in the conversation of learning languages to approximate the native speaker as closely as possible occurred with Paikeday's 1985 publication of *The Native Speaker*

Is Dead (Paikeday, 1985) in which the term "native speaker" was problematized to the point that it was self-published as no publishing house would take up the controversial issue. Kramsch (2003) also challenged the binary structure of native versus non-native speakers when she contended that:

> From the perspective of linguistic travel and migration rather than from that of the traditional sedentary, bounded opposition native/nonnative, the notion of native speakership loses its power and significance…. everyone is, to a greater or lesser extent, a nonnative speaker and that position is a privilege (p. 260).

For the purposes of this study, a distinction has been made in selecting participants who did not grow up speaking their target language but Kramsch is right to problematize the binary definition. Although the fields of second language acquisition and language pedagogy still commonly use these terms, the participants may be better considered "multilingual subjects" (Kramsch, 2009) which implies that they are "language users" in their own rights. Ultimately and most importantly, the participants' own voices shed light on how they identified as users of their target language.

Turning more closely to the field of language pedagogy, particularly foreign language teacher education, we find it is also relatively young in comparison to the core content areas (e.g. science, mathematics) and again in comparison to TEFL. An overarching set of national standards was drafted only in 2002 when the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) devised a set of teacher preparation program standards that was accepted by a major supervising body, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Educators (NCATE). In 2005, additional standards describing the knowledge, skills, and abilities of teacher candidates were then

established to complement the program standards (ACTFL, 2006). Further, a controversial 2010 position statement by ACTFL called on teachers and their students to use the target language a minimum of 90% of the time in any classroom context, a call whose ramifications are as yet unknown but almost certainly will impact preservice language teacher development.

Finally, along with the formation of language teachers and the many conversations surrounding language teacher development, the beliefs of non-native speaking PSLTs offer critical insight into the growing body of research on learning to teach another language (e.g. Freeman & Richards, 1996; Watzke, 2007). The beliefs of PSLTs as they participate in their field placement may be in flux and under revision (e.g. Nettle, 1998); the changes that occur during the practicum experience offer insight into how preservice teachers develop as language educators in a short but intense time frame (e.g. Bateman, 2008; Vélez-Rendón, 2006). Additionally, beliefs that are reaffirmed or strengthened may also be telling as the participants share how this unfolded during their student teaching experience.

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING BELIEFS

Research on the beliefs about language learning was pioneered by Horwitz (1985) when she designed an instrument, the "Teacher Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory" (TBALLI) to better determine the beliefs of students in her foreign language methods course to inform herself, the professor, as well as raise the students' awareness about their own belief systems. Horwitz's (1985) findings spoke to a great diversity of

beliefs among student in her FL methods course and underscored the importance of instructors acquiring more than a surface conceptualization of their students' beliefs about language learning. Like the field of education in general, this work marked a shift away from the emphasis on teacher behavior to consider teacher cognitions as a critical aspect of understanding teaching and teachers. In a similar vein, other studies went on to examine students' beliefs in areas such as the learning of particular target languages (e.g. Martin, 2009), native versus nonnative teachers (e.g. Üstünlüğlu, 2007), and particular teaching methods (e.g. Brown, 2009; Levine, 2003). The thoughts, beliefs, and perspectives of both language teachers and learners have been given continued consideration in the past several decades with attention to pedagogical implications (e.g. Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Borg, 2006; Horwitz, 1985).

In terms of preservice language teachers, however, limited studies have focused on their beliefs and mainly concentrate on those specific to the use of the target language in the classroom (e.g. Bateman, 2008; Marcaro, 1997; Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2005). Bateman's study was one of very few studies targeting PSLTs' beliefs about language use in the United States context. Bateman asked student teachers of Spanish to predict how much target language and/or English they envisioned themselves using for specific classroom activities both before and after their practicum experience, comparing the pre and post test results of the same survey. The participants, two bilingual Spanish/English speakers and eight NNS of Spanish, had a range of movement in their beliefs about target language use, from very little to very much. Salient themes on what types of situations called for the use of English over Spanish were identified though participants had

different justifications for their English use in some cases. Bateman's study provides a snapshot of one important aspect of language teaching and how beliefs surrounding target language use can further solidify or significantly change in just a semester of student teaching.

The research referenced here on preservice teachers' use of and beliefs about the target language during the practicum experience represent the few studies available in this direction of research. Only the most recent piece, Bateman's 2008 study, focuses on the United States context even though influential national standards such as ACTFL (2002) make a clear call for preservice teachers to have a high level of proficiency, to engage in particular behaviors and cognitions for implementing their teaching, and to be prepared to use the target language as much as possible in future teaching (ACTFL 2010). What is more, language use is only one part of the bigger pedagogical picture, albeit an integral piece. Further understanding how preservice language teachers think about learning and teaching during the culminating field experience is essential as demand for qualified language teachers continues to grow (e.g. Rhodes & Pufahl, 2008).

THE STUDY

This study elucidates three preservice language teachers' journeys as they prepared to begin student teaching, underwent the field experience, and then concluded their student teaching. Given the numerous and rigorous standards required to become a language teacher along with the lacuna of research around PSLTs in the United States, it is helpful to examine the PSLTs' beliefs and reflections during their first substantial

teaching experience. Further, non-native speaking PSLTs were chosen for several reasons. First, they reflected many FL teachers in the United States and second, they self-identified as not having reached an end-state in their own language learning. The participants prepared for and took language proficiency exams approximately halfway through their student teaching. This resulted in the participants both learning more about their teaching and learning more about their target language and culture(s). This study describes how these PSLTs negotiated the involved experience of completing their formal training and how they made sense of this experience as they became certified teaching professionals, addressing the follow research questions:

1. How do preservice language teachers think about language teaching and evolve during the field experience? What do PSLTs believe about target language use and how do they modify, question, or maintain these beliefs during the field experience?
2. What areas of coursework, theoretical understandings, past experiences, and/or prior knowledge do PSLTs identify (or not) as informing their teaching during the field experience? How do they see these sources of knowledge in relation to their development as (language) teachers?
3. What are other sources, in addition to beliefs, of instructional planning and choices in the classroom?

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter provides the reader with a background of some of the elements surrounding language teacher development including how language teachers are certified in the United States, issues of professional identity development, beliefs about language learning and teaching, and cognitive and social factors in language teacher education.

THE NATIVE SPEAKER QUESTION

As noted in the previous chapter, the conceptualizations of what it is to be a native or non-native speaker are varied and complex. The first clearly articulated definition of a native speaker comes from Bloomfield (as cited in Davies, 2003) in 1933: "The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language, he is a native speaker of this language," (p. 43). Bloomfield's early definition provides a starting point for defining the native speaker, indicating that it may be seen as a child's home language and not necessarily the language affiliated with the child's national identity.

Given the basic nature of Bloomfield's definition, it is not surprising that other researchers have sought to provide a more robust, comprehensive definition of the native speaker. Stern (1983) delineates characteristics of a native speaker including an innate understanding of grammatical rules, a sense of intuition for meaning, skill for interaction in social contexts, a multitude of language skills, and creativity with language use. Stern's definition might explain why a native speaker, when asked an explicit grammatical question, might simply explain "it sounds right" instead of offering a detailed response including a linguistic explanation. Stern also acknowledges that language use is not a solitary activity and includes a social component in his description of the native speaker.

Stern's description is not exhaustive and other scholars have included additional features or descriptors of a native speaker. For example, Johnson and Johnson (1998) include the concept of a native speaker belonging to a language community, furthering Stern's inclusion of the social element in native language use.

Davies (2003) includes additional characteristics of native speakers and questions positionality in this concept. Davies (2003) describes native speaker characteristics such as an individual's automaticity of language production and an awareness of the differences between one's own speech and the so-called "standard" version of the language. Davies calls into question the position of a standard version of a language and its inherent racism:

> What is often meant by native speakers in this context is the deliberate exclusion of those who are not, in fact, in with a chance of being one. A Singaporean, Nigerian, or Indian might see him/herself as a native speaker of English but feel a lack of confidence in his/her native speakerness (p. 8).

One question that arises from Davies' work is confidence in one's "speakerness," an issue that concerns some language teachers.

Medgyes is a scholar who has addressed the issue of non-native language teachers on many occasions (e.g. Medgyes, 1992; Medgyes, 1994; Medgyes, 2001). Medgyes' (1994) influential book, *The Non-Native Teacher*, examines the perceived native/non-native dichotomy and how it influences teachers of English, particularly those whose English may be considered non-standard. Medgyes argues against privileging British or American English with the intent of positioning non-standard English as lacking, particularly in teacher hiring practices.

Árva and Medgyes (2000) compare and contrast native and non-native English teachers' behaviors and the researchers delineate common perceptions of differing abilities of the two types of teachers. For example, some perceived characteristics of native English teachers suggest that they "use real language," "use no/less L1," and "supply more cultural information" (p. 357). In contrast, non-native English speakers are perceived to "use 'bookish' language," use more L1," and "supply less cultural information" (p. 357). The researchers indeed found that the native speakers had notably better English skills but also found that the native speakers did not devote as much time to planning their lessons or curricula. Rather, the native speakers "kept pushing their students along a never-ending path" (p. 369). The non-native speakers engaged in comparatively more planning and also took steps to continue to improve their English. These teachers "favored a step-by-step approach" (p. 369) and had specific communication goals for their students.

Todd and Pojanapunya (2009) offer some insight into student views of native and non-native speaking teachers. Their results showed that students explicitly shared a preference for a native-speaker teacher but implicitly felt more warmth toward non-native teachers. The researchers explained: "although students explicitly prefer [native speaker English teachers], unconsciously they exhibit no real preference and they actually feel warmer towards [non-native speaker English teachers]" (p. 30). It seems students positioned native speaker teachers as "better" but also felt a type of appreciation for non-native speaker teachers. These student attitudes are not lost on teachers and Todd and

Ponjanapunya (2009) call for opportunities that "would allow all teachers to be judged as individuals rather than as representatives of potentially prejudicial categories" (p. 31).

PRESERVICE LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION

To better understand the preservice language teachers' experiences in this study, it is helpful to outline the status of preservice language teacher preparation. Though each state is responsible for teacher licensure requirements, this section will begin with general research on language teacher education (LTE) in the United States and then will focus on the some credentialing requirements for the state in which the study occurred.

While a good deal of research on language teacher preparation stems from a second language context outside the United States (i.e. the TEFL/TESOL field), there is a comparably smaller but nonetheless growing body of research on LTE in the American context. The history of language teaching in the United States may be seen as marked by extremes either actively endorsing or discrediting language learning; this polarization contributed to stunted growth in LTE (e.g. Watzke, 2003). Numerous scholars (e.g. Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Schulz, 2000; & Stern, 1983) have cited the lack of consistent, conducive approaches to language learning and teaching as causes for the somewhat precarious position of LTE.

The frustration surrounding the state of LTE resonates in Tedick and Walker's 1994 article, ominously entitled "Second Language Teacher Education: the Problems that Plague Us," in which the authors call for the field to receive "a major shaking" (p. 300). These authors outline five central problem areas in LTE: 1.) a disconnect between the

relationship and interconnectedness of first and second languages and cultures; 2.) a separation and seclusion from language arts programs 3.) an objectification of language in teaching and learning; 4) an overwhelming programmatic focus on methodology rather than learner-centered practices; and 5) a disconnect between language and culture in teaching (Tedick & Walker, 1995). The authors state that these problems are widespread and deeply rooted at many levels of the systems of teaching and learning. Additionally, the authors conclude by acknowledging that change is frustrating but calling on LTE as the site where change must garner greater momentum toward progress on the five aforementioned problem areas.

In a related piece, Schulz (2000) undertook the demanding task of reviewing the literature from 1916-1999 to document the history of foreign language education (FLE) as well as identify the current state of affairs. Her findings were also less than heartening as she stated "[w]e are still discussing many of the same issues that were discussed more than 80 years ago, and we still have not found solutions to many of the problems that plague the development of FL teachers" (p. 516). Like Tedick and Walker (1994), Schulz (2000) identifies central areas as priorities for reform in language teacher education including a required study abroad experience for PSLTs, greater research on language teacher best practices and assessment, and greater collaboration among all involved in language teacher development. Schulz's concerns are related to those of Tedick and Walker, bringing in the 21st century on a bleak note for language educators.

Despite the concerns voiced in the 1990s and 2000s, the LTE field was not experiencing a kind of Dark Ages in the 20th century; progress was made even if slowly.

Professional organizations and policy standards influenced the education and certification of language teachers beginning in the middle of the 20th century. In 1940, the National Teacher Examinations (NTE) program began assessing teachers of all content areas including languages. This move to provide metrics on teacher candidate knowledge and employ gatekeeping to yield more capable instructors represents a major shift in LTE in the United States. The movement on assessing and evaluating language teachers continues to this day with even more vigor and greater political influence.

In 1988, for example, ACTFL issued the "Provisional Program Guidelines for Foreign Language Teacher Education." This document was intended as a starting point to articulate ways for institutions of higher education to better prepare preservice teachers as well as evaluate their programs for improvements going forward. These guidelines exemplified the move away from the language teacher as simply a grammar-translation academician and toward the teacher as an interactive, pedagogically savvy educational specialist. The standards focused on three central areas for preservice language teachers: personal development, professional development, and specialist (e.g. content) development (ACTFL, 1988) as essential tenets for intuitions wishing to develop successful language teachers.

ACTFL's 1988 LTE guidelines and its 1999 *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (2nd ed.)*, explaining what successful language learners looked like, led to a 2002 issuance of program standards in collaboration with the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), a university accreditation body of which ACTFL became a member-group. This publication

represented the first overarching set of language teacher preparation standards to be widely implemented. Any university program accredited by NCATE was and presently remains required to follow the standards. Other non-NCATE programs based their practices off the standards as well but to varying degrees of adherence. While encompassing a wide range of skills and abilities for teacher candidates, from theories of language acquisition to cultural knowledge to professionalism, the standards begin with linguistic ability. Proficiency is important: "Standard 1.a. Demonstrating Language Proficiency. Candidates demonstrate a high level of proficiency in the target language, and they seek opportunities to strengthen their proficiency" (ACTFL, 2002). When it comes to defining what this high level of proficiency is, the ACTFL/NCATE collaboration required at least 80% of teaching candidates of commonly taught languages (e.g. French, German, Spanish) must reach the Advanced Low category on an Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) for the program to remain compliant.

This Advanced Low OPI cut point is not observed in all states or at all universities; Intermediate High is a common threshold for certification purposes (Van Houten, 2009). Interestingly, some states have moved away from the ACTFL-style OPI and designed their own oral proficiency instrument altogether. In the state of this study, preservice teachers must take a test of their content knowledge covering linguistics, culture, and pedagogical content knowledge but are not required to take an ACTFL OPI in most cases.

Teacher candidates of less commonly taught languages (e.g., Arabic) are required to take an ACTFL OPI and writing proficiency test (WPT). For more commonly taught

languages, this state exam includes oral and written language proficiency measures though they are not aligned to the OPI or WPT. The Spanish exam, for example, is scored from 100-300 points with 240 points being the minimum passing grade. The written and oral language sections are weighted at 12% each so language production test items encompass about a fourth of the exam score. This is different from some states where the OPI is a stand-alone requirement that must be passed at a given level to be recommended for certification.

When it comes to implementing program standards and developing the knowledge and skills of PSLTs, a much-discussed feature of LTE is the methods course. There is little consensus about how to situate the methods course with views ranging from the course concept being "paralyzing" to LTE (Tedick & Walker, 1995) to the view that we are in a "post-methods" era (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) to positioning the methods course as a "key delivery point where beginning teachers encounter a systematic body of knowledge about teaching and learning" (Dhonau, McAlpine, and Shrum, 2010, p. 74). Numerous researchers have problematized the methods course, situating it in a critical and debated position in LTE as discussed below.

Grosse (1993) conducted an extensive research project on FL methods syllabi, collecting some 157 documents from 144 colleges and universities. The researched focused around course "1) goals; 2) instructional materials; 3) content; 4) requirements; and 5) evaluation systems" (Grosse, 1993, p. 303) along with additional comparisons of content between FL and TESOL courses. Grosse (1993) found that LTE professionals experience "a strong sense of pride and professionalism" (p. 310) and had a good deal of

agreement on what types of content should be covered in a methods course. The author called for further growth in areas of technology, variation in assessment, greater articulation between universities and the K-12 system, along with other concerns about professional development (Grosse, 1993). Several of these concerns are echoed in Tedick and Walker's (1995) and Schultz's (2000) calls for significant reformations in LTE.

Wilbur (2007) revisited the methods course after previous calls for change in LTE along with other calls for progress in teacher education in general (e.g. Hower, 1996; Imig & Switzer, 1996). Wilbur's (2007) research involved both questionnaire data from methods instructors (N=30) and syllabi analysis. In an effort to discover if standards-inspired change had occurred, the author examined all data through the lens of the ACTFL standards (2002). Unlike Grosse (1993), Wilbur found remarkable divergence in the variety among both methods instructors' backgrounds and course delivery along with the content of the syllabi. Even with the overarching professional standards, Wilbur (2007) found the lack of basic consistency troubling for the quality of preservice teachers produced. Once again, an admonition was issued for the field of LTE as Wilbur stated "[t]he profession must somehow demystify foreign language teaching practices and identify a more systematic means of unveiling those practices for new teacher candidates" (pp. 94-5).

In 2010, Dhonau, McAlpine and Shrum also responded the implementation of NCATE/ACTFL and other standards, searching for changes situated in the methods course with their article simply entitled "What is taught in the foreign language methods

course?" The authors found consensus on what was being taught although they only received 32 responses from the 200 survey invitations they sent out, making generalizability difficult. The methods courses from the researchers' sample were found to share a focus on national standards, innovations in assessment techniques, and technology-assisted instruction (Dhonau, McAlpine, & Shrum, 2010). The researchers concluded that the standards movement was indeed affecting change and reported "the foreign language profession has embraced performance-based assessment as indicated by survey results. Very few FL candidates will be able to enter the profession without being able to demonstrate proficiency in the authentic use of language, in how to interpret literary texts, and how to analyze cultural perspectives" (Dhonau, McAlpine, & Shrum, 2010). p. 92). The authors' more optimistic tone is a notable contrast to previous researchers' assessments of the state of LTE.

The methods course remains under scrutiny and revision as standards continue to be reformed, professional and accreditation organizations revise their guidelines, national and state certification policies continue to change, and new research emerges. Interestingly, some states require a certain number of language methods credits for language teacher certification; the state where this study was conducted does not at present. What is certain is that the methods course will not soon drop from debate surrounding best practices and innovations in LTE.

Another component of LTE that remains under investigation, much like the methods course, is the inclusion of practicum experiences in preservice teacher development. In the state of this study, there is a certification requirement mandating a

set number of hours of practicum experiences prior to student teaching; how LTE programs use these hours, space them out, and assess them is at their discretion. While the state cites no specific research to support their requirement, it is clear that it privileges the idea of spending time in K-12 schools in addition to full time teaching.

Of course, preservice teachers' practicum experiences are a topic of researcher by language teacher educators, both in the TEFL/TESOL contexts and that of FL education. One such study on student teacher portfolios by Antonek, McCormick, and Donato (1997) found that student teachers of an unspecified foreign language valued interpersonal relationships. The participants' themes included developing relationships with their cooperating teacher and students and developing lessons. The researchers observed a lack of discussion about target language in the portfolios, leading them to postulate: "despite our efforts to ground student teachers in second language acquisition theory, for [student teachers] it is not necessarily the most salient feature of their clinical teaching experience" (Antonek, McCormick, and Donato, 1997, p. 24).

Kwo's (1996) case studies of student teachers of English in Hong Kong also provide evidence for student teachers' prioritization of relationship development in their practicum experience. Kwo asked each of her three participants to develop an action-research question to address throughout the student teaching experience. One participant chose to focus on her interactions with the students including how and when to ask questions, how to deal with quieter students, and how establish a feeling of trust in the classroom. Interestingly, this action-research project also led to questions of target language use in a way that Antonek et al's participants did not identify. Kwo explained:

"When students participated more actively [the participant] found herself without the language or spontaneity to handle unexpected responses" (p. 310). The student teacher in Kwo's (1996) research prioritized building relationships with her students but realized addressing this concern would also require a kind of English that she had yet to develop.

In other studies, findings showed that student teacher participants struggled to fully teach as they anticipated and did not feel they had the type of relationship with the cooperating teacher that they envisioned. For example, Weber and Mitchell's (1996) aptly named "Betwixt and Between: The culture of student teaching" showed themes of not feeling like a "real teacher" (p. 308) and that concerns of this nature led to another them, "doing things right" (p. 309). The latter theme was described as the student teachers feeling "they are supposed to adapt to the expectations of both their classroom teacher and university supervisor," leaving the participants feeling frustrated about their ability to experiment with their teaching as they had anticipated. Weber and Mitchell's research suggested that in order to have success, student teachers must either find ways to fit in with the status quo or find ways to develop a strong professional personality that allows them to fit in while retaining "unique elements acquired as a member of other subcultures" (p. 312). Either way, this study illustrates the difficult work that student teacher professional identity entails during the experience in a host classroom.

Similarly, Johnson (1996) describes a TESOL (Teaching English as a Second or Other Language) practicum experience in which a student teacher was fraught with tensions, in part due to her cooperating teacher. It was only when the participant was able to take over teaching full time and implement some of her own choices that she was

able to continue in the program. Johnson (1996) summarizes the experience of the student teacher, explaining "the most overwhelming tension rested in the gap between her vision of teaching and the realities she faced in her classroom" (p. 45). Johnson posits that this is not an unusual experience for a student teacher, suggesting that student teachers be granted "a reasonable amount of control over what and how they will teach during the practicum so they can test their emerging conceptions" (p. 47). Just how that advice is interpreted, of course, remains the realm of the cooperating teacher.

Raymond's 2002 cases studies of student teaching also found the host classroom to be an important factor. Raymond explained:

> The participants entered their field placements with ideas about how foreign languages should be taught. They experienced varying degrees of success in implementing those ideas, however. According to the participants, the teaching context either limited or enabled their teaching decisions (p. 23).

For example, two of the participants took over teaching in the host classroom and experienced student resistance because the student teachers employed more target language than the cooperating teachers. Two other participants found they were easily able to implement their target language use goals because the students were already accustomed to the cooperating teachers' use of it.

More recently, García, Hernández, and Davis-Wiley (2009) detailed some of the key problems facing language teacher education and proposed a "new paradigm" (p. 22) to address the issues. Among them was a discussion of student teaching and the authors called for a far more involved role between the cooperating teachers, student teachers, and university facilitators. The authors explain:

> By eliminating the traditional practice of occasional intervention and thereby broadening the supervisor's responsibilities and time in the field, we will have created a symbiotic relationship where planning, implementation, and critical examination are a triadic and not dyadic event. By reformatting the time allowed for the commitment of talents and close cooperation involved, we give the period of student teaching the appropriate critical mass that is consonant with its importance to teacher education overall. We believe that such a procedure successfully recalibrates the respect due our mission of setting the course for the pre-service teacher's rite of passage from the student's desk to the teacher's (García, Hernández, & Davis-Wiley, 2009, pp. 36-37).

García et al (2009) seek to reframe the student teaching experience by creating greater collaboration between the K-12 and university settings creating an involved of mentoring team for student teachers.

THE TARGET LANGUAGE QUESTION

One lens that can be used to investigate preservice teachers' language practices during their induction into teaching is through the area of research examining target language use. A large number of studies address the quantity question- how much target language is and/or should be used in the foreign language classroom (e.g. Brown, 2009; Duff & Polio, 1990; Levine, 2003). Other studies examine the type of target language to be used, the "teacher talk" that provides comprehensible input in the target language for the language learners (Krashen, 1985; Lee & VanPatten, 1995). An important consideration when using this lens, however, is that the majority of this body of work focuses on the target language in the context of in-service teachers; significantly less

work has been done in the United States context on preservice LOTE teachers' target language use and their associated beliefs and perspectives on it (Bateman, 2008).

The first study to provide a glimpse into student teachers' target language use was the Tarclindy Project (Marcaro, 1997) that was set in foreign language classrooms in England and Wales and was designed to investigate what was happening in these classrooms in light of national curriculum standards. One of the main research questions was to investigate the "[u]se of the target language by teachers in order to carry out the business of lesson management and content delivery" (p. 3). The majority of participants agreed that a high level of target language use was either somewhat or very important to language teaching and indicated frequent use of the target language for tasks such as giving instructions, explaining activities, responding to questions, and giving feedback. The participants were less inclined to use the target language for tasks such as classroom management or student rapport-building. While Marcaro's inclusion of student teachers in his work marks the first time this population was incorporated in such a study, unfortunately he did not distinguish between the student teachers' and in-service teachers' beliefs.

Marcaro would later go on to research student teachers exclusively and his 2001 study of codeswitching (i.e. switching between first and second languages) which, in chronological terms, also happens to be the next piece of literature in the preservice teacher/target language use trajectory of research. In this study, the student teachers were not native speakers of the target language, French, and all were English, with a detailed description of their teacher preparation outlined. At the outset of his study, Macarao

asked the participants to read a passage on six key arguments and counterarguments on language acquisition and then the researcher and participants discussed these tenets in relation to language teaching in a "general debate" format (p. 533). After this academic discussion, Macarao conducted individual interviews with the participants along with observations of their student teaching sessions. Macarao triangulated these data sources and concluded with the finding that all of the participants had very high levels of target language use in the classroom, citing government standards and their preparation as primary reasons the participants gave for using large amounts of French.

A study asking similar questions was conducted in 2005 in the Israeli context. Orland-Barak and Yinon conducted a study in Israel on how student teachers of English as a Foreign Language viewed the use of their first language in their initial teaching experience. Their findings led to three key themes on how the two participants used their first language while teaching, for clarification, communication, and managerial purposes. This study also discussed the relationship between perspectives on target language use and the state of being a novice teacher and the unique concerns associated with these two facts, for example, how to best build rapport with students and if the target language can be used this case. The findings loosely paralleled those in Macarao's 1997 study indicating interesting commonalities in two very different international contexts.

The final and most recent study of student teachers' use of the target language, this time in the United States context, comes from Bateman's 2008 case study of 10 student teachers and their beliefs about using the target language over the course of their practicum experience. Bateman asked the participants to predict how much target

language and/or English they envisioned themselves using for specific classroom activities both before and their practicum experience, comparing the pre and post test results of the same survey. Six salient themes regarding difficulties using the target language were identified: classroom management; lack of time; linguistic limitations of nonnative teachers; teacher fatigue; building rapport with students; and avoiding unfamiliar vocabulary. Bateman's study reiterates some of the same findings from the previous studies and is important for its addition of the concerns of nonnative speakers and the related concern about vocabulary knowledge.

The studies outlined here on preservice teachers' use of and beliefs about the target language during the practicum experience are the few studies available in this relatively new direction of research. Only the most recent piece, Bateman's 2008 study, focuses on the United States context even though national standards such as ACTFL (2002) make a clear call for preservice teachers to have a high level of proficiency and to be prepared to use the target language as much as possible in future teaching (ACTFL 2010). Given the importance of quality and quantity of language use recommended for the preparation of the preservice teacher and the demands of using that language in the future language classroom (ACTFL 2002; ACTFL 2010), exploring how preservice teachers, further research is needed to understand how language teachers develop the language necessary to do the important work of teaching in their second- but not secondary- language. Understanding the preservice teachers' attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs around the use of the target language in the classroom can provide further insight

into how they use the target language and continue to learn during their induction years of teaching, even when they no longer enjoy the "official" role of student.

BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE TEACHING

One objective of this study is to examine the research around teacher beliefs, honing in on that specific to preservice language teacher beliefs; this is an area of study presently limited in scope. There is a relatively large body of knowledge on teacher beliefs (e.g. Fives & Buehl, 2008), a trajectory of research on preservice teacher beliefs starting from the early 1980's (e.g. Lasley, 1980), and an area of research concentrating on language learner beliefs (e.g. Horwitz, 1988) but only four studies have focused specifically on preservice language teachers (Bateman, 2008). This section will move from general research on teacher beliefs to the specific area of preservice language teacher beliefs, highlighting what can be taken from the general and applied to the specific and ultimately attempting to begin to address the gap in research through the dissertation research process.

Preservice teacher beliefs may be of particular interest, especially during the transition period of the student teaching experience when these beliefs may be in flux (Nettle, 1998) as the preservice teachers grapple with previous learning experiences, methods courses, and the reality of their current student teaching experience (e.g. Lortie, 1975; Tedick & Walker 1995). Given that so few studies deal with preservice language teacher beliefs and the fact that student teachers are frequently required journal about these beliefs (among other things) throughout their practicum experience, it seems that a

wealth of data on the student teachers' thoughts over a critical time period is left unshared on a greater scale. Perhaps access to these data could create a space for the as yet unvoiced discussions of preservice language teacher beliefs and how they relate to the larger frameworks of teacher beliefs and second language pedagogy.

STUDENT TEACHING AND IDENTITY IN FLUX

Numerous studies have addressed identity in preservice and new language teachers, often in the TESOL context (e.g. Norton, 1997; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). While educational research began with a strictly behaviorist approach to studying how teachers did their work, cognitive psychology began to raise questions of how teachers think about their work, how their beliefs inform them, and how they think of themselves as educators. The field of language education, in particular, has moved from simply a means of teaching students to translate literature to encouraging students to become language users and culturally-informed global citizens. This shift in goals for language teaching and learning most certainly requires a grounding in teacher identity, in keeping with Danielewicz's (2001) argument that becoming a teacher is essentially a process of identity formation.

Trent (2010) looked at six preservice teachers in Hong Kong and their processes of constructing a language teacher identity. All were native speakers of Cantonese and the researcher deliberately used a pool with an equal number of males and females. Trent's review of the literature found that many preservice teachers had relatively rigid, dogmatic views of what the concept of "becoming a teacher" truly meant (and by

extension, the identity issues). Further, research showed that preservice teachers also tended to see the role of teacher as relatively dyadic, either traditional (transmission model) or modern (constructivist). Any middle ground tended toward a combination of the traditional and modern rather than any other conceptualization of the type of teacher one could be. Interestingly, these participants experienced notable changes in their views on teacher identity throughout their field experience and their thoughts remained in flux at the end of their student teaching. Trent calls for future studies on how to encourage this type of reflection earlier in the teacher education process and suggests that ambiguity is the catalyst for doing so.

Another example of the development of language teacher identity was a lengthy study conducted by Zembylas (2005) which centered around emotion. Zembylas conducted an ethnographic study of a teacher named "Catherine" over three years and then followed up a year later. Zembylas takes a poststructuralist view on identity, drawing heavily on Foucauldian theory of power structures and struggles. The researcher chose to do a case study on just one teacher so he could better follow the complexities of emotion and identity that developed over time. Zembylas gathered a good deal of data through interviews with Catherine, field observations, any kind of documentation he could obtain (e.g. lesson plans, philosophy statements, her students' work), as well as a journal in which Catherine discussed her emotions. Zyembylas works to understand Catherine's experiences with emotional rules, emotional control, and how her identity is constituted in terms of emotional rules and the school she is working in. Further, three

years later Zembylas followed up with Catherine several times. Zembylas' work focuses heavily on power dynamics and argues that teacher identity is at this site of struggle.

Duff and Uchida (1997) conducted studies of six English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Japan in an effort to better understand their identities as teachers. Three of the participants were American, three were Japanese and all tended toward a North American context in their cultural discussions. Uchida and Duff drew on a sociocultural framework for their study, believing learning to involve social interaction with others as knowledge is co-constructed. The researchers held that biographical and experiential information also contributed to teachers' present work in the classrooms and interviewed participants not just about their teaching but also about their backgrounds to gain a deeper understanding of how the participants constructed their identities as individuals and teachers. Uchida and Duff saw the classroom as a place of change, a site where teachers socialized students to linguistic and cultural components of English and North American culture. The teacher were more than just instructors, they were "cultural workers" (see Giroux, 2005).

Traditional models of teacher development often portray a linear path from student to student teacher to practicing teacher. This notion is reflected in sequences of coursework and the meeting of requirements that culminate in the issuance of a teaching license as a sort of end-point. As Phelan et al (2006) state, preservice teachers are "caught between the demands of the normative (what they believe they ought to be and value) and the normalisation (what professional others tell them that they should be and value)" (p. 162). The preservice teachers must negotiate multiple sources of input

including coursework, theoretical beliefs, interactions with (cooperating) teachers, and past experiences as they go about the work of becoming teachers. Given the many sources of information about teaching, it is difficult to imagine a truly linear, step-by-step, process of becoming a teacher. Ultimately, preservice teachers are engaged in an iterative, ongoing journey that is neither at Point A or B but between both and neither (Sinner, 2010).

Kramsch (2009) takes a similar view in describing the complex process involved in second language learning and teaching, stating "Much of what we teach can only be modeled: how *we* have dealt with being multilingual, how we ourselves have dealt with culture shock, identity crises, wondering where we belong and it what it means to learn or use a language other than our own" (p. 209). This statement not only applies to the experience of learning a language but can also apply to learning to teach when identity can be a very central issue, both professionally and personally.

INTERACTION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Language learners present different goals for their learning, from being able to read a professional text to being able to live in a target culture and participate in all aspects of language usage. The current context of language teaching in the United States, including in the site of this study, trends toward Communicative Language Learning (CLT) in which learners actively engage with the language and use target language interactions as a site of learning (e.g. Lee & VanPatten, 1995). Savignon (1991) employees a football metaphor to describe CLT:

> The interest of a football game lies of course not in the football, but in the moves and strategies of the players as they fake, pass, and punt their way along the field. The interest of communication lies similarly in the moves and strategies of the participants. The terms that best represent the collaborative nature of what goes on are *interpretation, expression,* and *negotiation* of meaning. The communicative competence needed for participation includes not only grammatical competence, but pragmatic competence. (p. 262, emphasis original).

CLT, then, represents a move in the language classroom away from teacher-centered, grammar-translation methods and procedures. Interaction with the language is a central tenet of CLT.

Interaction theory, of course, did not spring from CLT but rather, CLT drew on principles such as those presented by Vygotsky (1979) in which he argued that all learning, including language learning, was the result of social interaction. One concept central to Vygotsky's theory of learning is the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD). The ZPD is an area that represents what learners can do with their own knowledge along with that of a more knowledgeable other in a supportive environment. In language learning, this might involve a language student interacting with a native speaker to test theories and receive feedback. ZPD can also be observed in teacher development. For example, the ZPD might involve a student teacher working with a cooperating teacher to design an effective lesson plan for a challenging concept. The student teacher may not have thought of a particular lesson activity alone but could use an idea from the cooperating teacher as a catalyst for pedagogical growth.

SELF-EFFICACY AND TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY

The concept of teacher self-efficacy is rooted in the theoretical work of Rotter (1966) on the internal and external locus of control which was the impetus for a group of

RAND[2] researchers to delineate the concept of "teacher efficacy." The research group defined teacher efficacy as the extent to which teachers felt they could influence the results of their actions and if the results were impacted by something that lay within themselves or forces of the environment. In one RAND study, the sum of two items on a questionnaire that were intended to measure teacher efficacy were found to strongly correlate with reading achievement among minority students. A second, related RAND study found that teacher efficacy was a strong predictor of the continuation of federally funded projects after the funding ceased.

The two items used on the RAND test that created the teacher efficacy score examined teachers' beliefs about the degree to which environmental factors usurped any power a teacher could use to affect change in schools. This was later renamed as "general teacher efficacy" (Ashton et al 1982). The other questionnaire item referred to teachers' confidence in their abilities to overcome factors in their environments, demonstrating that they had the confidence in their training, experiences, and strategies to help them foster student learning. This was labeled "personal teaching efficacy" and accounted for individual differences among teachers.

The early RAND studies supported the notion that teacher efficacy could be a powerful tool in fomenting student performance, percentage of project goals achieved, and the use of project materials and methods in the classroom. The RAND research

[2] RAND is an acronym of "Research and Development" and was founded as a think tank in 1946, originally funded by the U.S. Air Force. It is now a federally funded research and development center (FFRDC). For more, see http://www.rand.org/.

offered seminal studies that spurred other researchers to take up the question of teacher efficacy.

Shortly after the first RAND studies on teacher efficacy, the concept of self-efficacy arose from Bandura's work in social cognitive theory. Bandura (1977) constructed teacher efficacy as a type of self-efficacy, that is, a cognitive process in which individuals constructed beliefs about their own capacity to perform for a given level of attainment. Bandura (1997) stated that these beliefs influenced how much effort individuals exerted, how long they persisted when faced with adversity or failure, and how much stress or depression they experienced when coping with demanding situations.

Bandura's (1986) work in self-efficacy is also germane to teacher development studies. Bandura presents a four point construction of self-efficacy that includes an individual's mastery experience, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological states. The first source of self-efficacy is the mastery experience which Bandura (1986, 1997) considers dominant over the other three features involves an individual achieving successes on challenging tasks rather than only undertaking simple, easy tasks. Bandura (1986) explains:

> Performance levels on difficult tasks speak more strongly to underlying capabilities when much effort has been exerted under conditions conducive to maximum performances…. Individuals who experience periodic failures but continue to improve over time are more apt to raise their perceived efficacy (p. 402).

The second point of Bandura's (1986) model is that of vicarious efficacy; this type of information involves observing another individual with roughly equivalent

capabilities as those of the learner. Bandura (1986) states that seeing another perform successfully may raise a learner's self-efficacy while seeing a failure may lower the learner's self-efficacy.

A third influence on self-efficacy, social persuasion, refers to input from significant actors in a learner's life, often involving encouragement that shows belief in the learner's abilities (Bandura, 1986). This inspiration from others may strengthen the learner's feelings of self-efficacy and positive feelings about being able to accomplish the desired outcome on a task.

Finally, physiological and emotional conditions may impact self-efficacy as it is human nature as "people rely partly on information from their psychological state in judging their capabilities" (Bandura, 1986, p. 401). As many teachers have observed, learners' comfort levels may impact the ability to learn, particularly in extreme cases such as hunger.

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

The work done by Gardner and Lambert in 1972 might be seen as a starting point in motivation research specifically focusing on second language acquisition. They posited that two main motivators promoted language learning, integrative motivation for personal enrichment or integration into a given language community and instrumental motivation for leveraging opportunities or accomplishing goals (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner and Lambert's (1972) research on the two motivators indicated that integrativeness tended to lead to higher language proficiency scores.

The constructs of instrumentality and integrativeness were later changed from being seen as types of motivators to orientations of motivation (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991); this change in semantics allowed for a meaning of the concepts in which learners may have high or low degrees of motivation in a given language learning context. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) also found that there were contexts in which instrumental orientation could also foster successful language learning.

Given the varied findings and simplicity of the orientations dichotomy, Gardner and his colleagues were not without critics. Au (1988) felt the dichotomy of orientations was rooted in cultural and contextual notions that made it difficult to correlate language learning successes with the two concepts alone. Gardner answered Au's criticism by producing additional empirical evidence (e.g. Gardner, Day & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). The robust debate in the first two decades of research on motivation and language learning indicates the complexity of defining motivation in relation to the individual differences of each language learner.

Dörnyei was another ambitious researcher active around approximately the same time as Gardner and his colleagues and one who continues to refine and reexamine the concept of motivation. Some of Dörneyi's work builds on Deci's (1975) research that examined how extrinsically or intrinsically motivated learners were toward a certain task. Extrinsic motivation stems from outside the self, motivating an individual to complete a task for a reward. Conversely: "Intrinsically motivated activities are one for which there is no apparent reward except for the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward" (Deci, 1975, p. 23).

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) developed "the 10 commandments for motivating language learners," a taxonomy of behaviors that teachers could employ to intrinsically

motivate language learners. Sample commandments included "promote learner autonomy" (p. 217) and "personalize the learning process" (p. 217); commandments were followed by supporting research as well as practical ideas for application.

Dörnyei continued to outline and update motivation frameworks; one more recent framework is Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System* which described L2 motivation using three main concepts. Learner identity and personal beliefs are centerpieces to the theory and Dörnyei (2009) asserted:

> L2 motivation researchers have always believed that a foreign language is more than a mere communication code that can be learnt similarly to other academic subjects, and have therefore typically adopted paradigms that linked the L2 to the individual's personal 'core,' forming an important part of one's identity (p. 9).

The first dimension of Dörnyei's (2005) theory is the ideal L2 self, a construct involving learners envisioning themselves as speakers of the L2. The second dimension is the ought-to self that learners envision as embodying the characteristics necessary to avoid negative outcomes when learning language. The final dimension is the L2 learning experience which includes environmental and contextual factors in language learning.

MENTORSHIP AND SUPPORT FOR STUDENT TEACHERS

In the traditional United States model of teacher education, the student teaching experience is generally the last required university commitment and it involves placement in a host teacher's classroom. The host teacher is sometimes referred to as a cooperating or mentor teacher and whose role is intended to support and guide student teacher growth. The relationship between the host teacher and student teacher has been

examined and analyzed through a strand of educational research; I will outline some key works here.

While the concept of mentoring is hardly new to the educational world, Healy and Welchert (1990) cite a lack of functional definition as impeding the advancement of research on the concept. The researchers created a working definition that they situated in "developmental-contextual notions" (Healy & Welchert, 1990, p. 17) that dealt with both an individual's potential in a given context. Healy and Welchert (1990) describe mentoring as "a dynamic, reciprocal relationship with a work environment between an advanced career incumbent (mentor) and a beginner (protégé) aimed at promoting the career development of both" (p. 17). When it comes to mentoring student teachers or new teachers:

> Mentors transmit a complex legacy of professional acumen that reflects their own unique ability to identify salient issues and heuristics in the work environment. They cultivate qualitative changes in the protégé's approach to tasks rather than his or her immediate productivity (Healy & Welchert, 1990, p. 18).

Booth (1993) describes the student teacher-mentor teacher relationship in his study of 45 student teachers of varying content areas. A substantial 88% had good or very good experiences with their mentor teachers and a majority of participants wanted positive feedback and encouragement from their mentors. Nonetheless, Booth found instances of a mismatch between a student teacher and mentor's expectations of the mentoring role and concluded that greater articulation of expectations between the student teacher, mentor teacher, school setting and university program would be useful. Booth (1993) concludes:

> What is called for is a careful tend [sic] sustained dialogue between training institutions and schools; it may well be a painful process for training institutions used to autonomy and calling the tune as far as [teacher training] is concerned. But it might be a way of creating a genuinely coherent training for student teachers in which the practice and theory are effectively married and training institution lecturers and mentors see themselves as partners in a jointly run enterprise with clear and complimentary roles, (p. 183).

While Booth (1993) examines student teachers' views of their mentor, Stanulis (1995) offers a descriptive study on how mentors working with student teachers view their role as mentor. Of the five teachers profiled, four found their mentoring to be:

> illustrative of occasional where common understandings were reached between mentors, prospective teachers, and university faculty. They felt these relationships emerged through sustained interactions, shared professional responsibility, and respect…. (Stanulis, 1995, p. 343).

The fifth teacher featured in the study felt a strong commitment to her own students and so did not attend many of the meetings for mentors or engage frequently with the university professionals. Stanulis (1995) calls for these concerns to be acknowledged but points out that "it raises the issue of how university educators decide who is the most educative model for mentoring" (p. 343)

In 2001, Zanting, Verloop, and Vermunt examined both student teachers' and mentors' beliefs about the role of the mentor during their student teaching experience. Remarkably, they found a large amount of overlap in the qualities that student teachers and mentors identified as important in a mentoring relationship. Nonetheless, the agreement in mentoring qualities did not necessarily result in consonance in practice. For example, Zanting et al (2001) cautioned "teacher educators should be aware of the

possible mismatch between individual student teachers' beliefs about mentoring and those of a mentor. Problems can arise when students and mentors do not have the same interpretations of mentoring," (p. 77). In other words, consensus over beliefs must be evaluated and openly discussed between every mentor-mentee relationship throughout the duration of the arrangement.

Finally, cooperating teachers and program facilitators should not be seen as the sole source of mentorship and support for a student teacher. Peer support may also offer a growth opportunity for new teachers during their field experiences. For example, Manouchehri (2002) studied the interactions of two preservice mathematics teachers during a practicum experience that occurred in tandem with a teaching methods course. The preservice teachers wrote reflective journals, observed each other's teaching, and met for regular discussion groups. Manouchehri (2002) found that the peer interactions occurred more and more frequently as the semester progressed and that the "peers helped problematize learning issues, teaching actions, and mathematics for one another" (p. 715). The peer interactions prompted the participants to delve into pedagogical literature to foster innovation in their lessons as well as to discuss more complex features of the mathematics content.

Arnold and Ducate's (2006) study examined 23 new teaching assistants' asynchronous computer mediated communication (ACMC) using an online message board. The study was designed to create an idea exchange for the teaching assistants as well as a way to practice using technology. The teaching assistants socialized, forming a sense of community, and also shared problems and concerns. The researchers found that

most participants had a favorable view of their message board experience. Arnold and Ducate (2006) summarized:

> It can be said that this implementation of ACMC was successful for the following reasons: (1) students enjoyed the discussions (83%) and would enjoy participating in such a discussion again(65%), (2) they perceived them to be beneficial to their teacher training for both cognitive and social reasons, (3) they engaged in in-depth processing, 4) they used online discussions to form their own virtual learning communities, and (5) they reported that they are likely to use CMC in their own teaching (87%), (p. 58).

The researchers found, among other things, that the message board forum was a site of peer support and guidance.

Similarly, Yang (2009) examined the online interactions of student teachers English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan. The student teachers posted reflections on a blog to both practice their English skills and examine their teaching experiences more closely. Yang (2009) found that the student teachers developed a community of practice and the blog was a place to develop theoretical understandings of their teaching practices. Additionally, the blog was a site for the student teachers "to voice their doubts, struggles, discomforts, successful and unhappy teaching and learning experiences because the other participants shared very similar experiences of being EFL language learners and teachers" (p. 18). The student teachers demonstrated progress in their thinking both as individuals and as a group.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have briefly reviewed the literature related to preservice language teacher preparation as well as that related to (preservice) teacher beliefs,

feelings, and identity concerns. The research presented here is most certainly not exhaustive which speaks to the complexity and interconnectedness among the roles of language learner, language user, and language teacher that preservice teachers may experience throughout their development. It is this complexity that inspired this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter presents the methods, tools, and procedures I employed to design, implement, and complete my study. It includes a description of the research setting, the participants, the instruments used to collect data, the means of analyzing the data, and the measures employed to ensure trustworthiness.

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND RATIONALE: CASE STUDIES FRAMEWORK

This study investigated preservice language teachers' conceptualizations of language teaching over the course of the student teaching semester. The research framework employed was a qualitative case study model (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2008) that focused on preservice teachers' experiences transitioning into the role of language teacher. Merriam describes the logic behind conducting qualitative research, stating that "researchers are interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences" (2009, p. 5). Qualitative research may be undertaken in a variety of manners; for this study, a case study approach was adopted following Yin's (2008) guiding tenets that the research questions ask "how, why?" (p. 8) that there is no need for "control of behavioral events" (p. 8) and that the case focuses on "contemporary events" (p. 8). The research question for this study is: "How do preservice language teachers think about language teaching and evolve during the field experience?" This question is in keeping with Yin's criteria; the study asks *how* preservice teachers think about their work in language teaching *how* they view themselves as language teachers, and *why* they teach the way they do. Further,

the research question does not lend itself to a controlled experiment in which the participants would engage in an intervention. Finally, the issues examined were ongoing and set in the present therefore, following Yin's line of reasoning, case study methodology was an appropriate research framework for this study. My case is the student teacher during the semester of the student teaching field experience.

One important aspect of qualitative research is the use of the researcher as the primary instrument for data collection and interpretation, a situation rife with implications. Researcher bias must be addressed and confronted though it is impossible to remove from the study; in fact the researcher's situatedness in the study may not be wholly problematic. Glesne and Peshkin (1991) eloquently address the concern of researcher subjectivity, stating:

> My subjectivity is the basis for the story that I am able to tell. It is a strength on which I build. It makes me who I am as a person and as an I, equipping me with the perspectives and insights that shape all that I do as I … Seen as virtuous, subjectivity is something to capitalize on rather than to exorcise (p. 104).

Stating the researcher's positionality from the beginning assists the reader in understanding the researcher's interpretation of the data and allows the researcher to reconcile his or her 'personness' as a reality of qualitative research.

In some studies, it may be important for researchers to share their background and experiences and identify aspects of the self that might influence their interpretations of the data. In my case, I occupy a role similar to that of the participants: I am a native speaker of English who teaches Spanish. I acquired much of my linguistic knowledge through traditional classroom learning as well as a study abroad experience in Spain,

regular interactions with native speakers of Spanish, and heavy reading in Spanish, both online and in print. These experiences may belie my background as a white, middle class woman who was fortunate to enroll in higher education and study in Europe. I also view myself as a teacher-learner, never reaching an end point with Spanish proficiency but continuing to learn vocabulary, grammatical structures, and pragmatics, not to mention the cultural understanding of the many nations and populations where Spanish is a dominant language. It is thrilling to be a teacher-learner and yet anxiety-inducing at the same time as I balance my role of teacher/knower with that of life-long student/learner.

I subscribe to sociocultural theory (e.g. Vygotsky, 1979) in that my students construct knowledge through our interactions and I do not transmit knowledge to them. I also learn from my students and find our class meetings a rich site of these interactions where we can construct learning together (e.g. Bakhtin, 1986). During this study, it was essential that I be cognizant of my deep-seated beliefs and passion for teaching and learning languages as I allowed the participants' own beliefs, passions, and anxieties to be voiced—whether they mirrored my own or not.

Research Site and Context

This study was conducted at a research university in Southwestern United States. The University was located in a metropolitan area with numerous school districts in which student teachers were often placed. At the time of the study, the University enrolled approximately 50,000 students and employed more than 20,000 faculty and staff.

The University offered baccalaureate through doctoral programs and conferred over 10,000 degrees each year.

For undergraduate students wishing to become certified in middle and high school world language teaching, a liberal arts major and enrollment in the "Next Educator" professional program were required. The Next Educator program was housed in the College of Liberal Arts and involved a four semester sequence of pedagogy courses. Students could apply as early as the second semester of their freshman year though most applied during their sophomore year and completed the Next Educator courses during their junior and senior years. A minimum 2.5 GPA was required. The mission of the Next Educator program was to provide students with a balance of practical and theoretical knowledge and required practicum experiences in the schools throughout the duration of the program. Students were placed in cohorts and many of the faculty members were master teachers with substantial K-12 backgrounds. The Next Educator program enjoyed a favorable local and national reputation.

Students in the foreign language cohort of Next Educator took a methods course in English, given the numerous languages represented in the cohort, and took a seminar in tandem with the student teaching experience, among other general education courses. Next Educator subscribed to ACTFL's call for 90% target language use in the classroom at all times, a benchmark selected given some instructors' respect for the ACTFL organization. The student teachers were observed once by the seminar instructor and once by a Next Educator facilitator during the semester.

Participants

The participants recruited for this study were enrolled in a Next Educator seminar that was run concurrently with student teaching. I emailed all students in the course sharing my project and asking for participants who self-identified as non-native speakers of the language they were preparing to teach (see Appendix A2). The rationale for the non-native speaking requirement was to add a dimension of content knowledge and learning in addition to the participants' development of instructional skills and practices. I also visited the seminar on the first evening of class to introduce myself and address any questions or concerns. Of the nine students enrolled in the course, three agreed to participate in the study and signed consent forms (see Appendix A1). Three student teachers volunteered and taught French, German, and Japanese. Given the case studies model I employed, three was a reasonable number and I did not have to cut participants from a large pool. This study, then, employed a convenience sample.

The participants were asked to share their background as language learners, discuss their lessons and interactions while student teaching, and share any materials they developed, such as lesson plans or class handouts during a series of five interviews throughout the semester. I also administered a modified "Teacher Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory," or TBALLI (Horwitz, 1985, See Appendix B) at the beginning of the student teaching session and following student teaching. The TBALLI included items such as "a teacher can do a lot to help a student learn" and "languages are best learned through repeating vocabulary."

The student teachers were all given pseudonyms and identifying details were masked (for demographic information, see Table 3.1). Upon completion of the study, all student teachers were given $25 Amazon gift cards as a token of my appreciation of their time and input. The comfort of my participants was my highest priority and I informed them that they could withdraw at any time without consequences. I documented their rights on the IRB consent form they received and verbally throughout the interviews.

Pseudonym	Gender	Approximate Age	L1	Language Taught
Rachel Morgan	Female	Early 20's	English	French
Bridget McLean	Female	Early 20's	English	German
Nozomi Umeda	Female	Early 20's	English	Japanese

Table 3.1: Student Teacher Demographics

In addition to the student teachers, I also recruited their cooperating teachers and the instructor teaching the seminar (for demographic information, see Table 3.2; for consent information see Appendix A4). The purpose of including these participants was to triangulate data from the student teachers and provide a richer description of context in which the student teachers were operating. In order to ensure the comfort of the student

teachers, however, I chose not to ask their cooperating teachers or professor to address the performance of the participants. Rather, the cooperating teachers and professor discussed their general experiences working with student teachers and their overarching beliefs about the mentoring process. All four participants received a $15 Amazon gift card following their interview to compensate them for their time and contributions.

Pseudonym	Role	Supervised
Emily Lazaro	Seminar Instructor	All participants
Michelle Hendricks	HS French Teacher	Rachel Morgan
Gertrude Smith	MS German Teacher	Bridget McLean
Ryan Fujimoto	HS Japanese Teacher	Nozomi Umeda

Table 3.2: Instructor Demographics

INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

Surveys, Interviews, and Artifacts

The primary data gathering tool for this study was semi-structured interviews one-on-one with the participants. I chose this format given the qualitative nature of the study; I wanted to allow participants to address areas of importance to them even if I had not anticipated them beforehand. I interviewed the seminar professor and cooperating teachers in person once at the end of the semester at a time and place of their choosing. I interviewed the student teachers five times from the beginning of the semester to just past the end of the student teaching session. I met with Bridget in person for all interviews at

a time and a place of her choosing. I met with Nozomi in person four times; on one occasion when she was ill, she asked to be interviewed by phone. All interviews were scheduled for times and places convenient to Nozomi. Rachel began a new teaching job out of town during the last third of the semester so her first three interviews were in person and the last two were by phone. All interviews with Rachel were scheduled at her convenience. After every interview, I asked participants to add anything that was important to them but I may not have had the foresight to ask them about.

All interviews were recorded as indicated on the IRB consent forms that the participants had read and signed. The interviews were recorded digitally as MP3s and uploaded to my password-protected computer and given file names that corresponded to pseudonyms. I chose to make digital recordings because I wanted data with exact wording so I could share participant comments in their own voices. I took notes on nonverbal communications and other details that were pertinent to the interaction. Immediately following each interview, I reviewed my notes and created researcher memos. I then transcribed the interviews, again using pseudonyms and masking any identifying information, and deleted the digital interview files. All transcription files were given names that corresponded to pseudonyms.

At the first interview with student teachers, all were asked to complete the TBALLI with inventory items focusing on the beliefs about the teaching and learning of languages (see Appendix B). The participants were informed that the survey had no right or wrong answers but rather measured the degrees of their beliefs. The TBALLI employed a Likert scale with rankings from 1-5. In addition, I asked participants to

include any notes if they felt a simple numbered ranking was too restrictive for their thought processes. All participants chose to annotate at least some of their responses and these notes served as discussion points at the conclusion of the first interview.

During interviews three and four, I asked the participants to verbally walk me through a lesson that was clear in the memory because of its success or challenges as a stimulated recall exercise. For the last interview, I re-administered the TBALLI with the inventory items in a different, random order. Again, the participants were invited to annotate their responses and then with me and we discussed areas of divergence and consistency.

Other sources of data from the student teachers were documents including their teaching philosophies, a final project from the seminar, sample lesson plans, and PowerPoint presentations used in their classrooms. The student teachers emailed me these documents throughout the duration of the study and I saved them on my computer using pseudonyms and changing identifying details.

As a part of the seminar, all nine enrolled students wrote reflective blogs and commented on each other's postings. I obtained permission from all students to access the participant student teachers' blogs and the comments associated with them. I was granted access to the blog by the seminar professor, copied the three participants' blogs with comments into a Word document, then the seminar professor canceled my access to the blog. I did not view or analyze any other student's blog except than those of the original three participants. In keeping with my protocol, I changed all names to pseudonyms and deleted or modified any identifying details.

As mentioned above, I also met with each cooperating teacher and the seminar instructor for a face-to-face, semi-structured, interview. These interviews were designed to provide insight into how the cooperating teachers viewed the role of the student teacher, the expectations set for them, and how the teacher viewed his or her role working with student teachers. The seminar professor shared the content of the course, her experiences with language teaching, and her role in mentoring student teachers. She also provided me with documents including the course syllabus, rubrics, and basic assignment information. In all cases, conversations were kept general and did not focus on or evaluate the student teacher participants and documents were scrubbed of identifying information.

Finally, after the semester and student teaching had concluded, I asked that each student teacher participant design an artifact that visually represented their experiences becoming language teachers during our fifth and final interview. I described possible examples of artifacts and gave each participant the option of creating a digital or physical artifact. Nozomi and Bridget chose to hand-design their artifacts while Rachel, who was out of town, designed an electronic poster. The participants were given the option of keeping their artifacts. Nozomi requested a PDF of the painting she designed and I provided her with one immediately following our interview. I chose to include the artifact design to encourage participants to think in a different way as they designed their projects and to elicit different information than that common to a traditional interview. This was another resource with which to triangulate to contribute to the chain of evidence for this study. A summary of all data collection may be seen in Table 3.3.

Phase 1 (beginning of student teaching)	• Two semi-structured interviews with student teachers about their language learning experiences and beliefs about language teaching • Participants completed the TBALLI.
Phase 2 (during student teaching)	• Two semi-structured interviews with student teachers about the student teaching experience • One semi-structured interview with the cooperating teachers • Analysis of student teachers' blog postings
Phase 3 (following student teaching)	• Concluding participant interview with artifact creation
Throughout Phases1-3	• Member-checking, researcher memos, collection of multiple sources of data (e.g. lesson plans, handouts).

Table 3.3: Data Collection

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was an iterative process, occurring in tandem with data gathering as interviews were transcribed and studied, field notes were processed, observations were

reviewed, and artifacts examined. To avoid the sensation that Merriam (2009) aptly describes, the "drowning in data" (p. 170), I followed her call for "rudimentary analysis while you are in the process of collecting data, as well as between data collection activities" (2009, p. 171). As key themes arose during this ongoing analytical process, I coded appropriately and investigated more intensely. The case studies research design involved multiple sources of data for triangulation, as Yin (2009) underscores, "a major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use many different sources of evidence" (pp. 114-5). Finally, member checking was a key factor in data interpretation, as the participants themselves were the heart and the voice of this study. Maxwell supports this view, stating that member checking is:

> the single most important way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do and the perspective they have on what is going on, as well as being an important way of identifying your own biases and misunderstandings of what you have observed. (as cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 217).

I have been committed to member-checking to be as confident as possible that the conclusions of this study indeed reflect the experiences and realities of my participants.

Data from the TBALLI

The Teacher Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (TBALLI) was administered at the first interview with student teachers and consisted of 25 items and I labeled the document TBALL-1. I gave the participants as much time as they needed to rank statements on a Likert scale as well as annotate any responses they felt warranted greater explanation. We then reviewed the survey together to discuss the rankings and their responses to the survey items. I recorded participants' comments on the TBALLI to

keep a record of how they discussed the items they evaluated. I repeated the same procedure at the final interview, administering the same TBALLI but with inventory items in differing order and I labeled this inventory TBALLI-2. I then made notes on the TBALLI-2 indicating if items changed, by how many points, or if there was no change. I discussed variations and consistencies in participants' responses in person with both Nozomi and Bridget. Rachel had moved out of town and emailed me her responses. We then had an email discussion of the salient features from her two inventories.

I coded the TBALLI documents using the procedures outlined in Merriam (2009), beginning with open coding. I annotated the TBALLI documents with concepts and phrases that spoke to my research questions. After coding other documents such as my field notes from the meetings and the interview transcripts containing discussion of TBALLI items, I used axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2007) to identify emerging themes.

Data from the Interviews

I met with each student teacher five times with interviews lasting 30-90 minutes in length depending on the participant and the questions I had (see Appendix C1). I met with the cooperating teachers and the seminar professor one time each with interviews lasting from 30-75 minutes (see Appendix C2). All interviews were digitally recorded as MP3 files.

Following each interview, I transcribed the digital recordings and made researcher memos based on my field notes. Due to the parameters of the IRB protocol, I destroyed each MP3 file after transcribing it, having taken care to note any important features in the

participants' tone, emphasis, etc. I then took hard copies of all these documents, along with the TBALLIs, and re-read them multiple times, highlighting, underlying, and annotating the data or, as Merriam (2009) describes it, "having a conversation with the data [and] asking questions of it" (p. 178). I continued the open coding as the interviews progressed and I made connections between data points, patterns, and emerging themes. Over time I moved to axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2007) in which the open coding gave way to clearer categories or themes. I devised a master list of themes emerging for each student teacher participant across interviews as well as a master list of themes emerging from all interviews across all participants. The coding was an ongoing, iterative process that continued throughout the data collection and writing process of this study.

Data from Artifacts and Documents

During the course of the study, the student teacher participants submitted lesson plans, classroom documents, teaching philosophies, and any other documents they were comfortable sharing. I also analyzed the student teachers' blog postings that were reflections on their classroom experiences. Like the TBALLI documents and transcripts, I read through these documents multiples times and applied both open and axial coding to them throughout my analysis.

I received permission to view the seminar blogs of the participants and any comments left by their classmates (see Appendix A5). I also received the syllabus, rubrics, and assignment explanations from the seminar taken concurrently with the

student teaching practicum. Many of the documents generated and collected during the study were explicitly discussed during interviews and therefore coded in the transcriptions. Other documents, however, were coded individually with member-checking when necessary. Some documents served to triangulate data. For example, I saw consistencies across teaching philosophies and then I compared them with the class syllabus, assignment sheet, sample philosophies provided by the instructor, and the rubric by which the philosophies were graded. This assisted me in better contextualizing each participant's individual philosophy statement.

TRUSTWORTHINESS

One crucial issue in qualitative inquiry is that of the trustworthiness of the conclusions reached from the data. This is in part due to the researcher's role as an instrument of investigation which I view as a privilege and responsibility. I was as ethical as possible in my data collection; I made an effort to remain as neutral as possible so as not to lead participants in our interviews. I strove to achieve a closeness to the data in order to immerse myself in the participants' experiences yet also distanced myself from the data to ensure that the viewpoints of the participants were not colored by my own perspective.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) described the concept of trustworthiness as including credibility, consistency, dependability and transferability. The aims of qualitative research are not to find a universal truth but to elucidate the participants' experiences and

multiple realities. I employed the four elements Lincoln and Guba (1985) delineate to guide my work as a qualitative researcher.

To establish credibility, or to ask "do the findings capture what is there?" (Merriam, 2009, p. 213), I discussed the data and my findings throughout the study with my dissertation chair and colleagues to check my interpretations. I regularly asked the participants if my understandings matched their meaning and appropriately represented their experiences. Consistency and dependability, as interpreted by Merriam (2009), involve "whether the results are consistent with the data" (p. 221). Again, discussion with others was important as was sharing as much about the procedures for data collection and how I reached my conclusions. Finally, I provided as much rich description about the cases as I could, not to create a generalizable study but to allow others to apply my findings to their own contexts as appropriate.

Another traditional technique to enhance the trustworthiness of the conclusions is triangulation. Triangulating the data involves comparing different data points and types to verify if the conclusions are in keeping with the content of the data. Merriam suggests triangulating data by "comparing and cross-checking data collected through observations and different times or in different places, or interviews data collected from people with different perspectives or from follow-up interviews with the same people" (p. 216). For example, I compared student teachers' interview transcripts with the information they were sharing on their blogs, the follow-up from their peers and professors, and then how the content of these discussions might have manifested in a lesson plan.

CONCLUSION

This chapter described the methodology used in this study. The subjects who participated in this study included three student teachers of world languages, the three cooperating teachers in whose classrooms the student teachers were placed, and the professor who conducted the seminar that ran concurrently with student teaching. The study involved several types of data collection including semi-structured interviews, blog postings, a beliefs inventory, artifact creation and other documents the student teachers designed during the course of this study. Findings, analysis, and implications of the study are discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Findings

In this chapter, I will describe each of the participants in greater detail, share their student teaching experiences, then present findings and analyze the themes emerging from each case and across cases. This chapter addresses the research questions:

1. "How do preservice language teachers think about language teaching and evolve during the field experience?"
2. What areas of coursework, theoretical understandings, past experiences, and/or prior knowledge do PSLTs identify (or not) as informing their teaching during the field experience? How do they see these sources of knowledge in relation to their development as (language) teachers?
3. What are other sources, in addition to beliefs, of instructional planning and choices in the classroom?

In addition to interview data as well as lesson plans, blog posts, and other participant-designed documents, I asked each participant to create an artifact representing her student teaching experience in order to employ another modality in our ways of talking about learning to teach. The reader will note that the discussion of the artifact will occur at different points in the discussion of each of the three participants due to the individuality of the pieces. I varied the placement of the artifacts in order to preserve the best flow for the participants' stories.

INDIVIDUAL CASES

Case one: Rachel Morgan

As described in Chapter 3, Rachel Morgan was a married, Caucasian woman in her early 20s who earned her bachelor's degree in French education. She initially pursued a degree in journalism but found the elements of journalistic discourse too restrictive for her style. Rachel changed her major to French, citing her success in high school French courses as a key motivator. Rachel then added an education minor because she felt the stand-alone French major may not result in as many career opportunities as a major including teaching certification. She also reported an interest in teaching since childhood and an appreciation of the reputation of the Next Educator program. Rachel was placed in a high school French classroom with a cooperating teacher who had also completed the Next Educator program. Rachel's cooperating teacher, Michelle Hendricks, had never worked with a student teacher before. Rachel completed all the requirements for student teaching early and accepted a fulltime teaching position at a middle school around the last third of the semester.

For Rachel's case, I will present the three themes that emerged from my analysis of her individual case, providing analysis after each theme. Given the nature of her artifact, I will place it in the end as a summarizing tool.

Theme one: Organizational Skills

Rachel's most apparent and central characteristic was her organizational skills, particularly her ways of planning and preparing. When Rachel changed to a French major, for example, she quickly assembled a calendar of coursework through graduation, much to the astonishment of her adviser. Planning and organization were the cornerstones of Rachel's student teaching experience. She explained in an interview "I plan and I expect things to go how I planned and so I guess in that way I'm a perfectionist. I think in that way, that's part of my learning, I'm getting really good at it."

Rachel was quick to learn that planning for teaching also required a degree of flexibility. When I interviewed Rachel after a month of teaching, she was learning how to appropriately insert some flexibility into her plans. A visit from the seminar professor, Dr. Lazaro, occurred on the first day that Rachel implemented a new seating chart and new classroom management policies such as asking students to begin class silently doing a warm-up exercise. Both Rachel and Dr. Lazaro noted and discussed their perceived "coldness" in Rachel's instruction. Rachel, always open to feedback, began her classes the next day with some greeting and informal conversation with her students and found this to be a much more agreeable approach. Rachel observed:

> I'm finally becoming more like I envisioned [myself] being, versus always stressed out and 'this has to happen this way'… it's partly my personality because I am a planner and when things don't go as planned, well, I'm getting better.

Rachel was self-aware and, in a sense, learned to plan for flexibility and spontaneity in her lessons and instruction.

Rachel's excellent organizational skills also translated into classroom management skills. As noted in the previous example, Rachel implemented a seating chart to make the classroom operate more smoothly. In addition, she quickly tired of students not preparing their homework and sent a parent letter home asking for their help in student homework completion. Rachel also began calling students' parents when issues arose, something of which she was initially "scared to death." Rachel often arrived at school before her cooperating teacher, Michelle Hendricks, to prepare for the day. In one telling example, Rachel was confronted by a crying, hysterical student whose mother Rachel had called. Rachel managed to defuse the situation by calmly explaining why she had called the students' mother and what could be done by the student going forward. The student and Rachel parted on good terms but interestingly, Ms. Hendricks offered to write up the student's behavior when Rachel recounted the encounter. Rachel declined Ms. Hendrick's offer and reported no further problems with that student.

Rachel also reported several times that she was employing different activities with her students than Ms. Hendricks was able to do with her students. When I asked the extent to which Rachel and Ms. Hendricks co-planned, Rachel explained: "We don't even always do the same activities, partially because some of the activities that work with my classes wouldn't ever work with her classes." Rachel explained that some of her more communicative, interactive lessons would be challenging for Ms. Hendricks' group of students, given the way Ms. Hendricks employed classroom management. Rachel spoke cautiously, hedging and qualifying her words to protect Ms. Hendricks, discussing how her activities were received by students. Rachel explained "[Ms. Hendricks'] level one

class is totally out of control and I don't know if it's her… I don't want to say that it's her because part of it is just, it's just that group of kids… but part of me feels like *if it were me in charge of them, it wouldn't be as bad*" (emphasis added). Michelle Hendricks corroborated Rachel's viewpoint when she was speaking with me about her style as a cooperating teacher. Michelle explained:

> One of my strengths is definitely not strong classroom management. Basically how I can hopefully get the class to be controlled and calm is by being super nice and making them like me and want to be calm. But if they're not, I just have to kind of wait it out which is not the best thing. I'm glad I didn't have to figure out how to teach that to someone else because I knew I wasn't going to be able to.

Michelle was open about her challenge areas as a cooperating teacher and regularly spoke about her these areas with Rachel.

In similar discussions on classroom management, Rachel often described Michelle as "nice" and herself as "mean" but Rachel remained committed to maintaining the classroom climate most comfortable to her. Rachel's hesitant speculation that she might even have better results with Michelle's section speaks to the power of Rachel's planning and organizational skills and her self-confidence, theme two, of Rachel's' case.

One key component of the student teaching seminar was the study of backwards design (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998). This concept--involving first setting end-goals for students, then designing assessments, and finally creating lesson plans--appealed greatly to Rachel's sense for organization. Although Next Educator allowed for numerous practicum experiences, Rachel felt that the length of the student teaching allowed her to implement a longer-term project including backwards design and was pleased to be able

to assess the students and observe their progress over time when she took over her sections. Rachel described the backwards design experience as such:

> [Now] they're my students and I've got them day-to-day and I can see the progression. Before, when I started taking over and doing the kind of stuff Michelle was doing, I did not have a big grasp on what was happening or the outcomes, like what their assessments looked like. And you really don't know, are you succeeding? Is the lesson you actually taught doing well?

In fact, Rachel was so enthusiastic about backwards design that she taught her cooperating teacher about it, and Ms. Hendricks began using it in the sections she taught. The two collaborated together and planned six week units for all of the French sections.

It is perhaps not surprising that Rachel took a full time teaching position before the semester ended given her motivation to plan and move forward in her career along with her confidence in her ability to do so. Rachel called a middle school listing a French position, was asked to submit her resume, and was called back less than 10 minutes after emailing the document with an invitation to interview. Rachel interviewed two days later and, less than four hours after the interview, received a job offer. She had one more week of required student teaching and would then begin her new position.

Rachel's planning and organizational skills propelled her into her first teaching position. Rachel "weaned" her way out of the classes she was teaching, much to the dismay of her students. Rachel felt that the classroom management procedures she had put into place, particularly those she implemented specifically to the ones that contrasted with those that her cooperating teacher employed, assisted her in preparing for her first job. Rachel used her last week of student teaching week to modify her classroom

expectations, write a memo to herself about how she wanted to implement procedures in her new classroom, and prepare a letter to her future students' parents introducing herself and sharing her expectations. Rachel sent all three documents to Dr. Lazaro for feedback and advice. Rachel finished her student teaching on a Friday, moved out of town, and entered her new classroom the following Saturday.

Rachel met with the world languages department head from her new school the Saturday before she began her new job and received basic procedural training. Rachel then organized the classroom, wrote her syllabus, and prepared for Monday, stating "I spent all day Saturday on my classroom getting everything the way I wanted it because I knew if I was organized, everything else that hit me would come a lot easier." Rachel's organizational system worked well for her and she reported feeling that she was "100% organized" by her third day of teaching. Rachel did not see her complete organization as a way to streamline her teaching to a series of effortless processes, however, as she shared some mild concerns with her Next Educator peers on the seminar blog. For example, Rachel revealed some challenges as she was getting behind on grading and "a tiny bit overwhelmed but still going strong."

Theme two: Content Knowledge

A second theme that emerged in Rachel's case was her confidence in her knowledge of language and culture as well as how to teach them. Rachel referred to herself as a "quick study" who was able to adapt based on formal feedback from her cooperating teacher or other observers as well as the explicit or implicit feedback she

received from her students. Ms. Hendricks sensed Rachel's teaching skill and ability almost immediately and, unlike her counterparts, Rachel was taking over some French sections as early as the second week of class. In fact, Ms. Hendricks was comfortable leaving her unsupervised at one point that second week. Rachel shared on a class blog "I was supposed to do just half a lesson again yesterday with the period 5 class but Ms. Hendricks had to go do something so I ended up doing the whole class!" Rachel went on to share with her peers some previous lesson teaching she had done in the class sections she would eventually be taking over for total teach. Though nervous, Rachel was optimistic and showed confidence in her abilities, stating:

> By the end of next week, I'll be total teaching [all my sections]! YIKES! But I feel really good about it. I had nerves on Tuesday when I did my second lesson but after a minute, teacher mode kicked in and I just did it.

As Rachel continued to teach and started testing and evaluating her students, she had another moment of concern about her abilities when a class did poorly on a section of the test: "[T]he writing portion was not so hot. I feel like I've failed but I KNOW I gave them the notes and told them to study spelling. I KNOW I DID" (emphasis hers). Rachel felt like something she had done as the teacher impacted the students' performance on the writing section of the exam yet she counters this with an emphatic explanation of how she guided her students to prepare. Rachel's cooperating teacher discussed going over the writing section of the exam in class and having a re-take but Rachel took it a step further, analyzing the source of the problem "From now on, the students are going to have notebook checks. They are going to have to be taking notes. No options anymore." It is a sign of confidence that Rachel took her cooperating teacher's somewhat superficial

approach of a retake and devised a plan to better manage students' behaviors in test preparation rather than just accepting her cooperating teacher's advice as the final word.

When she began teaching full time as an inservice teacher, Rachel continued to feel confident in her role of teacher, even though it didn't "feel real" that she finally had her own classroom. Rachel was dismayed to find the previous French teacher had done a good deal of bookwork and tested using a multiple choice format. Rachel was appalled at this assessment technique for a language course but discovered it was also used at the high school that her middle school students would attend which prevented her from fully discarding the practice. After some reflection and getting acquainted with her students, Rachel determined the students needed the most assistance in their writing skills. Rachel devised multiple choice exams that also included writing sections. Rachel, a very new teacher, felt confident that she could help improve her students' writing:

> I'm crying inside at the fact that there's high school teachers who use multiple choice in the language classroom. But there's nothing I can do about that and it's my job to prepare them for high school French and if that's what I have to do, then that's what I have to do. But they're just going to have their work cut out for them because I'm not going to let them leave my class without being able to write, there's no way. They're going to have to learn to do both.

Rachel, though grappling with the multiple choice format that she found pedagogically unsound, still felt that she could find a compromise and help her students rise to her expectations. On the TBALLI that Rachel took at the beginning and end of student teaching, Rachel remained firm in her "strong belief" that teachers can do a lot to help students learn which is consistent with her confidence in growing her students' writing skills while also working within the confines of the system.

Rachel also displayed confidence in her language and cultural knowledge. Given that she had to pass a high-stakes state exam as a part of her licensure, however, Rachel was far from overly confident and engaged in a good deal of self-study while preparing for the exam. Rachel expressed frustration while preparing for the test and a desire to "just get it done." Nonetheless, Rachel did not display any serious anxiety about her language use and, while wanting to continuously improve her French, did not appear terribly concerned about her current level while student teaching. Rachel justified her French speaking skills, observing:

> I tell myself "Oh, well you've heard other French teachers' French and it's not nearly as good as yours so you should be fine." But I don't necessarily want that to be the standard I set for myself. I don't think it's fair to stand over a group of kids as the authority on French—maybe not *the* authority, but their go-to person—without really feeling like "Yeah, I got this."

When it comes to cultural knowledge, Rachel believed there was a strong connection between language and culture. She felt that her students needed cultural awareness in order to deal with issues of pragmatics so they would know how and when to use certain types of language. Rachel stated "You have to have the culture to understand why you are saying this or that." Rachel shared an example of this in a PowerPoint presentation with images to help students understand the difference between formal greetings (using vous) and informal greetings (using tu), a culturally-bound communication skill.

Interestingly, Rachel's difficulty on the state exam was not on the speaking section but rather on the cultural section. The cultural assessment makes up 8% of the

exam and is administered in a multiple-choice format. Rachel struggled with a comprehensive familiarity of the vast Francophone world, citing a question asking her what meal of the day would likely feature "la poutine," a traditional dish of French Canada. Rachel was frustrated by the discrete items the exam presented and questioned how she could have prepared for this portion of the exam explaining:

> I'm sorry, I took French history. I've been to France. I almost took a Francophone world class but I didn't and I don't think he would have taught us [about la poutine] anyway. I don't have the money to go to every country and keep a list of their cultural foods.

This is not to imply that Rachel felt disdain for the Francophone world, rather, she suggested a frustration with the vastness of the cultural content knowledge. In other interviews, Rachel spoke knowledgably about French Canada and also mentioned the joy of having a student in her class whose parents were from French speaking Africa.

Ultimately, Rachel passed her licensure exam on her first attempt. Rachel shared with me that, over the course of student teaching, she felt her language had improved, explaining:

> I've been forced to use [French] more than I would be if I weren't teaching the language plus having--we as language people know this already--having to teach something to someone helps you learn it better and it's all the little grammar points I might have lost along the way that are coming back stronger and are really going to be set in stone now because I'm having to teach [beginning students] so things like that have really made a difference. Plus I've made such a push on myself to make my language better plus having to get ready for the exam and all those things.

Even when a heritage speaker with Tunisian ancestry joined her class, Rachel remained confident in her French knowledge, acknowledging that the student had content to both learn and share.

Theme three: Target Language Use

Rachel's TBALLI-1 indicated that she "agreed" with the idea of teachers using English for some tasks and added "especially with first year learners and teaching culture." On her TBALLI-2, Rachel moved to "neither agree nor disagree", explaining:

> I think that you could eventually do everything in the target language, but not at first. Sometimes there is something really important you need to say, maybe not even related to your class that needs to be said in a language that the students have the vocabulary to understand. I wouldn't talk to them about [standardized] testing schedules if they hadn't learned the days of the week yet! But then again, it depends on your classes. Some might be more willing to bear with you as you work to get the information across to them. I'm not sure--- I'm arguing with myself now!

Rachel essentially concluded that the balance of target language and English was impacted by highly contextualized factors and not easily encapsulated in a simple rule of usage. This conclusion actually mirrors the complexity of the debate over target language use in the language education field (e.g. ACTFL, 2010; Cook, 2001; Levine, 2011; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Turnbull, 2001).

Rachel had concerns about the pre-established expectations of target language use in her host classroom. For example, she noted that her cooperating teacher "doesn't use [French] as much with the level ones as I think we need to be doing." Rachel's cooperating teacher, Michelle Hendricks, also recognized that Rachel had been able to

implement more French, saying "the level ones are essentially her kids, she's had them since week two, and if you get them in the beginning, used to French, they're ok with it. It's almost an immersion class."

Rachel found she had success with her level one students but faced greater resistance with her level two and three classes. Rachel explained this experience:

> My use of French is good with the level ones. Some days I get lazier and it's not a good French day. I say to myself "Rachel! You need to speak more French with your kids." But the French ones do really well. The French twos just stare at me and it's hard because they need to understand what I'm saying and they're already so behind I can't just sit there and repeat myself and dance for them for an hour and a half.

Rachel indicated several times that being "lazy" was what led to English use and shared that while circumlocution or implementing other strategies to stay in the target language took a good deal of time, it was worth the effort. Rachel recalled a challenging lesson when she tried to guide her French one students to intuit the word "brother."

> You have to find ways to make [the students] understand versus just switching into—"Oh they're not getting it? I'll just say it in English." Which is the hardest part, is when they're like "What?" And you want to just be like "It means BROTHER, come on!" We were doing family vocab, and I was like "This is me" and they knew "moi" so that was easy. And I was like "mes parents" and parents is a cognate. I was like ma mère, mon père, and one of the boys was like "What?" And I was like "parents, mon père" and one of the kids was like "It's her dad" and he was said "Oh." And then I got to my brother which was kind of confusing because I drew little cards with them on it and he's got really long hair and so I was like "Voici mon frère, c'est un garçon, mais il a les cheveux très longs." And some of them got it but some of them were like "Your friend?" Because frère looks more like friend than brother. And they were like "Your sister?" I said "non, c'est un homme, un garçon" and finally I was just giving them everyone, like IL, IL cuz they know he/she, they know their pronouns, and finally they were like "Oh!" and they understood.

Rachel felt that the time investment, rather than a quick English translation, was a means of providing valuable target language input to her students. While the students struggled and were confused, she nonetheless employed multiple strategies to guide their understanding and eventual comprehension of the word for brother. Rachel placed the target language onus on herself, explaining "It's not the kids that the issue is with, it's the teachers."

Theme four: Motivational Factors

Interwoven among Rachel's previous three themes is the fourth theme, her high levels of motivation for language teaching and her use of French. Rachel's organizational skills might be seen as the product of her motivation to succeed in teaching and in learning to manage her classroom. Rachel frequently arrived at school earlier than she was required to in order to prepare for her day and to address any last-minute details. Even Rachel's cooperating teacher noted her diligence and her desire to set herself up for a successful day teaching. Rachel reported how much she looked forward to each day teaching and the days she attended her Next Educator seminar, explaining "the kids were awesome and I loved my classmates as well so going to school was fun because I had such awesome kids and going to [the university] was fun because we got along so well in my class."

Rachel was also motivated in her French use, even after she had successfully passed her certification examination. Rachel shared a desire to travel in France again and wanted to use French outside of teaching, explaining "I keep it up at home, I watch movies and I read TV5 Monde, and all that I kind of stuff." Rachel expressed concerns

about teaching lower level French classes for a long duration and cited that maintaining her language would be even more critical were she not to take on more advanced levels.

Artifact Creation: "Show me where to go and I'll get there."

I asked all participants to create a visual model of their student teaching experience; this artifact offered another layer of analysis in examining how student teachers represented their experiences through the a non-verbal discourse. This data source allowed me see if the themes emerging from interviews, blog posts, lesson plans, and teaching philosophies were also present in the artifact. Only Rachel opted to make an electronic artifact, using Glogster, an electronic poster-making website that was popular among educators. Rachel chose to make a map with animated arrows charting the flow of her student teaching experience.

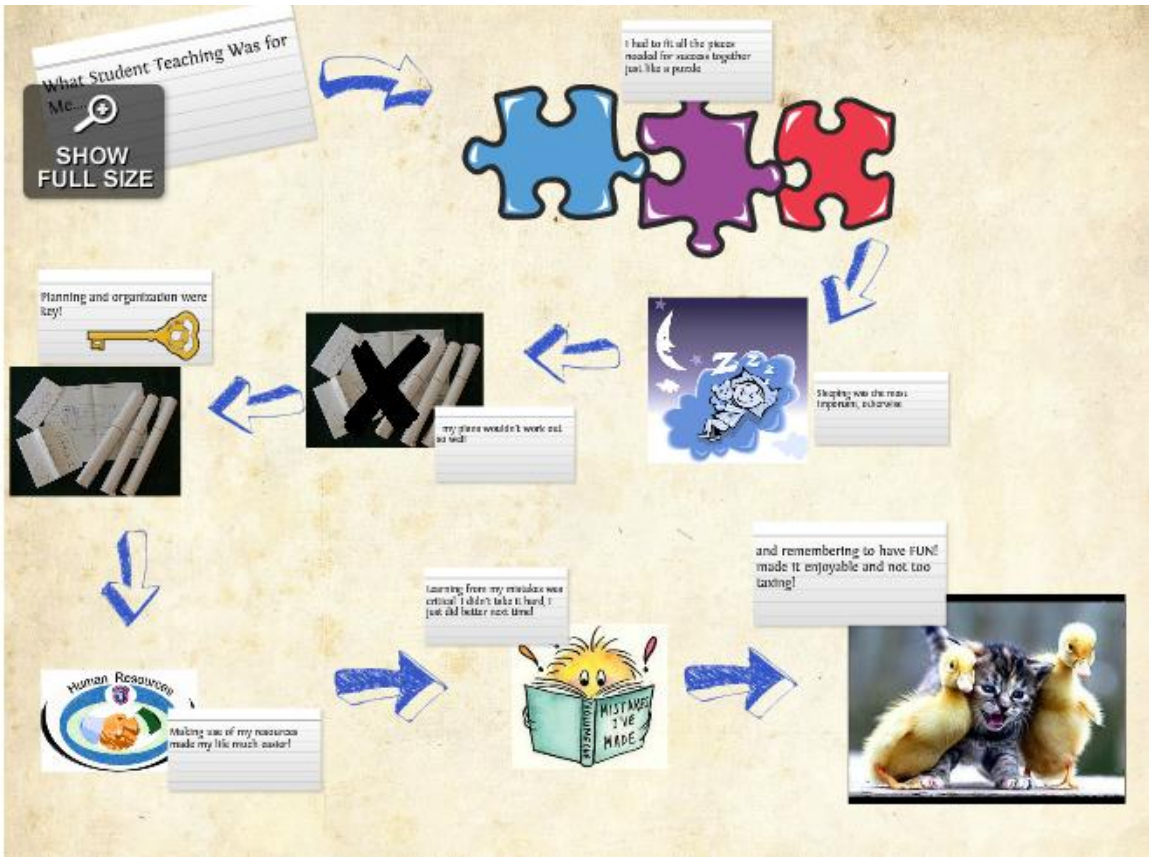

Figure 4.1: Rachel Morgan's Artifact.

Rachel's map included text and clip art to represent her "journey" through student teaching. Rachel wrote out her steps through student teaching as follows:

1. Student teaching was for me:
2. I had to fit all the pieces needed for success together just like a puzzle.
3. Sleeping was the most important, otherwise…
4. …my plans wouldn't work out so well.
5. Planning and organization were key!
6. Making use of my resources made my life so much easier.

7. Learning from my mistakes was critical. I didn't take it to heart, I just did better next time!
8. And remembering to have FUN made it enjoyable and not too taxing!

Rachel's linear, step-by-step model of student teaching is consistent with her interview data as well as the feedback of her cooperating teacher. Rachel began with the necessary "puzzle" pieces to preliminarily assess all that needed to be accomplished over the course of her student teaching, much as she had planned all of her coursework once she declared her French major. Rachel then indicated she needed a good deal of sleep, something important enough to her to include on her visualization of student teaching, in keeping with Bandura's somatic needs related to self-efficacy. Rachel followed this by saying without sufficient rest, she could not successfully carry through her plans. She then underscored planning and organization as "key" along with employing resources such as her cooperating teacher, her seminar instructor, and her peers. Rachel again shared she was not afraid of making mistakes and instead viewed them as opportunities to improve and grow. This sentiment is in keeping with self-efficacy theory, as Bandura stated "after a strong sense of self-efficacy is developed through repeated success, occasional failures are unlikely to have much effect on judgments of one's capabilities" (p. 399). Finally, Rachel concluded on a lighter note, explaining that she was able to enjoy the student teaching experience and not become overwhelmed by it.

Interestingly, Rachel's artifact is void of Francophone cultural images or linguistic features. In fact, she doesn't even refer to French or a second language; Rachel's artifact may be viewed as a "general" construction of student teaching that

might also apply to a student teacher of art or science. While Rachel felt she was more of a "language teacher" than just a "teacher" and also shared strong feelings about PCK, Rachel did not overtly represent these concepts on her map or in her explanation of it to me. When analyzing the data, I emailed Rachel to follow up on why she did not include French in her artifact, emphasizing that this was not a negative feature but one that made me curious. Rachel responded that she also found that this feature of her artifact was something she had to ponder:

> You know, I don't think I was thinking about French. I think I was thinking about teaching. And somehow, I think this often happens, when I think about teaching I don't think about French. A lot of time, my brain is full of theories or a list of best practices, which are all presented in English, so I imagine that that would cause me to think about teaching in English. When I think about specific activities I do that in French, but even lesson plans and all of that are in English.

When I asked Rachel to design the artifact, I asked her to reflect on "student teaching" and, according to the transcription of our interview, I did not in any way refer to French. This may have also framed her thoughts in terms of teaching in more general terms.

Further, Rachel pointed to English as the medium of instruction in her language pedagogy courses as a central reason that she thought in English while creating her artifact. The Next Educator program included multiples languages so there were limited opportunities for discussion of French teaching in French. Tedick (2009) addressed the lack of language-specific pedagogy courses and proposed a unique solution:

> An education faculty member might teach a language pedagogy course in English with accompanying "trailer" courses offered in a number of languages and taught by language faculty. For example, preservice teachers seeking licensure in German (or Chinese, French, Italian, etc.) would read about and discuss the pedagogical content of the English-medium class in German (or Chinese, French, Italian, etc.). This would contribute to ongoing development of the language and

> introduce preservice teachers to the discourse of language teaching in the language they are being prepared to teach (p. 266).

While the trailer course model may not be viable in a time of budget constraints and cuts at many universities, Tedick highlights the disconnect between teaching and language under which preservice teachers such as Rachel operate.

Case two: Bridget McLean

Bridget McLean was a single, Caucasian woman in her early 20s. Bridget began studying German in 9th grade and chose it over Spanish because her older sister had taken German. Because her high school teacher was "really nice," Bridget continued to take German all through high school. Bridget's dream was initially to be an English teacher but she chose to add German as a major as well so that she would not suffer from language attrition, stating "I didn't want to lose my German. I spent five years learning it and so I decided to do the German certification program so it helped me keep learning and maintaining my German." Bridget also felt that teaching was an enjoyable profession and felt an overwhelming majority of the teachers she had had were very satisfied with their careers.

Bridget was placed in a middle school German classroom, teaching 6^{th}-8^{th} grade. Bridget's cooperating teacher, Frau Smith was a native speaker of German and had completed the Next Educator program. Bridget was one of several student teachers that Frau Smith had hosted.

For Bridget's case, I have placed her artifact first to establish an overarching feel for her experiences throughout her student teaching.

Artifact Creation: "Am I doing it right?"

Bridget chose to draw a picture using markers and paper to represent her student teaching experience. Bridget reported that before she created her artifact, she spent some time reflecting on exactly how she wanted to represent the essence of her experience and she warned me that she was not very artistic, but I found her drawing to be striking and to the point, getting right to the heart of her feelings.

Figure 4.2: Bridget McLean's Artifact

I asked Bridget to describe her drawing and she detailed it for me, explaining:

> There were times where I just really felt like "I have no idea what I'm doing." I mean, I have an idea of what I'm supposed to be doing but it's not working out

> the way I want it to, I don't know how to fix it, you know I feel like my cooperating teacher is just "Oh everything's perfect" and Dr. Miller from Next Educator was just kind of like "Yeah, you're fine. Ok maybe you should try this." Like one suggestion and I didn't really feel helped. I didn't feel, like I knew what I wanted [my teaching] to look like and I knew kind of how to do it but I didn't feel [right], especially at first, but then there's the rescue helicopter and the sun and that's Anne Campbell and Dr. Lazaro coming to save me and help me out and give me what I need and the sun's like "Hey it's not all that bad!" And it ended up ok. And it ended up being….I learned a lot but really don't know what I would have done if Anne and Dr. Lazaro weren't there.

Bridget's student teaching experience included substantial support from Anne Campbell, a Next Educator facilitator, and Bridget's seminar instructor, Emily Lazaro. Bridget expressed concern about the lack of concrete feedback from her cooperating teacher, Frau Smith, a theme that emerged and will be discussed in the next section.

Theme one: Cooperating Teacher Matters

In her artifact, Bridget drew a picture of herself in rough seas and calling out "Help! Am I doing this right?" to summarize her student teaching experience. In discussing the image, Bridget mentioned that her cooperating teacher tended to give positive but unspecific feedback on Bridget's performance which led Bridget to question herself. Bridget had never been in Frau Smith's classroom prior to student teaching whereas many of her classmates had cooperating teachers that they had met, observed, and worked with in the practicum experiences leading up to student teaching. Bridget was placed in a middle school (grades 6-8) with Frau Smith by the Next Educator program. Frau Smith was herself a Next Educator alumna and looked favorably upon the program, thus compelling her to serve as a cooperating teacher. Bridget was Frau Smith's second student teacher.

Bridget took her teaching very seriously and expressed that she wanted to be the best teacher she could for her middle school students. Bridget chose to attend a state conference on language teaching to improve her skills and to learn more outside of the university setting. She returned from the conference very passionate about what she learned there, telling me:

> [The workshop] showed all these statistics that [showed] the most important factor in a child learning is the teacher. It's not whether they're rich or poor, it's not what school they go to, it's not if their parents are divorced, it doesn't matter if there are 30 kids or three kids, it matters how good you are of a teacher.

Because Bridget was teaching at a school with a high population of minority and socio-economically disadvantaged students, the power of the teacher over other demographic factors resonated deeply. Bridget did not view her student teaching experience as simply one more task to complete before her license but truly cared about helping her students learn as best she could. She continually expressed how she was "there for the kids" and how much it meant to her to work with them and "show them that they could learn German."

Given the demographics of the middle school and the nature of adolescent development, Frau Smith's philosophy was to focus her energy on making the students feel good about themselves, to know they had the potential to succeed, and to give them attention if it seemed their home life was difficult. To her, the priority for middle school students was to prioritize confidence and self-esteem development over content. As she explained: "I want to make [the students] feel good, to say, 'Wow, I can do this.'" Frau Smith described her teaching style as that of coach or motivator who had clear ideas

about what her students needed as individuals and, in a sense, seemed to apply that philosophy to her mentorship of Bridget.

When it came to language teaching, Frau Smith had clear beliefs about her methods and instructional choices. Bridget identified Frau Smith's and her own weaknesses as overlapping: time management and direction giving. These weaknesses created an additional challenge for Bridget. Frau Smith was an experienced teacher who did not rely heavily on the textbook, resulting in some anxiety as Bridget was taking over class sections without a syllabus substantial guiding curricular materials. Finally, Frau Smith did not assign homework to the students. It seemed the majority of teachers in the school avoided giving homework due to low expectations for student follow-through; most classes were given time for such work as a part of their 90 minute block class meetings.

Shortly after she started teaching full time, I asked Bridget how she was envisioning herself as a teacher. She felt that the identity of "student teacher" was complicated and difficult to negotiate, stating:

> That's something I've been struggling with because I envision myself as a teacher. But as a *student teacher* it's a lot more complicated, it's a lot trickier because it's not your classroom… You're not teaching these kids the rest of the year, you don't have them next year, and so I just feel obligated to teach in the style of my cooperating teacher which I don't like.

Though Bridget had been involved in the classroom from the first day and the students were familiar with her, she did not feel she could assert herself and grow into her planned conceptualization of teacher. Bridget was relegated to a state of "in-betweeness" (Sinner, 2010) that was an intersection of her conflicting feelings about respecting her cooperating

teacher's methodology, the students' future learning, and her own desires to employ her own teaching style.

One noteworthy example of Bridget's in-betweeness was Frau Smith's occasional comments to the class when Bridget was teaching. In one instance, Bridget observed Frau Smith teaching about subject pronouns using grammatical terms like "first person singular" and "first person plural." Bridget observed that some students failed to make the connection between "I" and "we" thinking instead that third person plural meant two "I's." When Bridget taught her section, she shared the English equivalents in place of using the more technical grammar terms, feeling it would be more accessible to her middle school students. Frau Smith then asked Bridget—in front of the class—if she might step in and then Frau Smith taught the subject pronouns again as she had done when Bridget observed her lesson. Bridget acquiesced but struggled with her feelings about the situation, sharing with her classmates on her blog:

> Also my cooperating teacher will interrupt my lesson, which I don't really mind, but she will talk for like 10 minutes. And as someone with time management problems, I do not find that very helpful. But the bottom line is that as much the Next Educator program tries to get [us] into these real life situations, these are not my classes. I will not have these students next semester or next year. So I do not think that it is my place to tell [Frau Smith] to butt out of what she is responsible for.

Bridget felt torn by her desire to have an authentic teaching experience while also respecting the fact that she was somewhat of a guest in Frau Smith's classroom who didn't want to infringe on Frau Smith's longer term goals.

Another area that was challenging for Bridget was target language use. Bridget did not feel Frau Smith used as much German as the 90% required in the Next Educator

assessments. In Bridget's seminar, Dr. Lazaro encouraged her students to use more target language which Bridget said caused a "stir" because not all student teachers felt in a position to do so, as she explained:

> I would love to speak 90% in German but really, it's difficult, because if [the students'] former teacher or your cooperating teacher doesn't train them to use the target language and to hear the target language, you'll end up spending 15 minutes of every class period going over the common commands.

After the "stir" about target language use in the seminar, Dr. Lazaro shared that she provided direct instruction to the student teachers about ways to implement greater target language use. Dr. Lazaro explained: "I went into a quick spiel about slowing down, gesturing, using teacher talk, using visuals." Bridget apparently heeded some of Dr. Lazaro's advice. Bridget shared a document with me in which she devised an activity to scaffold typical commands and classroom phrases to foster greater target language use among students. Bridget provided the students with a bilingual list of phrases that she as the teacher would commonly use (e.g. "Take out your books"). Bridget also provided the students with a list of phrases that they might use in class (e.g. "I forgot my homework"), asking the students to repeat then translate the German phrase that she had listed. Additionally, Bridget appealed to her students, explaining to them that she was getting "graded" on using a large quantity of German. This resulted in some initial panic among the students given the their initial experiences with Frau Smith's instruction in English but Bridget reminded the students that the amount of German would be gradual, over time and would help her learn to be a teacher. For all her efforts, however, Bridget

shared that the struggle to use German remained "hard up until the end" due to student resistance.

At the same, Bridget was preparing for her state content exam on German language and Germanic culture, indicating that speaking and listening were her areas of greatest concern. Although Frau Smith was a native speaker of German, Bridget's hopes for target language practice opportunities with a native speaker cooperating teacher fell short, as she explained:

> I felt like everybody was always like "Oh I have the best cooperating teacher, we have the same teaching, it was perfect!" and I was looking for that and I never got it and that was disappointing. And so I came in [to student teaching] with this notion that "Oh my cooperating teacher is going to be great, she's going to be great, because she's German and I'm going to learn all these idioms and my German is going to improve and I'm going to pass my test and that didn't happen because she never spoke to me in German and she never spoke to the class in German.

In the cases where Frau Smith did use German in class, Bridget felt uneasy about using Frau Smith's language as helpful input given the native speaker errors Frau Smith made. For example, Frau Smith often misspelled high-frequency German words. In another case, Frau Smith conjugated a common verb for students but used the wrong verb endings, leading Bridget to question her knowledge of the verb and to reference a grammar book. Frau Smith seemed to assume that, as a native speaker, her grammar was correct. Bridget was aware that all native speakers made errors however, given the high stakes nature of her exam, Bridget wanted to be sure she was prepared with solid academic grammar and therefore rejected Frau Smith's input as useful.

Finally, Bridget wanted input from Frau Smith regarding school procedures and policies. Bridget noticed that the middle school system was very different than what she remembered. When I asked her what her top goals for student teaching were, among them was to achieve an understanding of "how a school works." Bridget had learned in previous coursework about certain legal issues associated with disciplining students that made her want to know more about the specific policies of her host school. Frau Smith, like many teachers, was more focused on her students than on procedural tasks, however even her knowledge of fire drill procedures concerned Bridget:

> Today was crazy because there was a fire drill. And I did know it was going on because we got a warning that said "Fire drill is likely this afternoon" and so I asked my cooperating teacher, I'm like what are the procedures? And she said "Oh we just go outside." And I'm [thinking] that can't be the right procedure. Because in my little middle school, you followed your teacher out there, you stayed in the same area, and your teacher had roll call and she made sure everybody was there even if it was just a fire drill.

While Bridget's teacher instincts about the fire drill were sound, her underlying question "am I doing this right?" seemed to undermine her confidence. Without a cooperating teacher to address her questions in the way Bridget needed or to allow her the autonomy to explore some of her instincts, it is no surprise that Bridget often felt adrift and uncertain.

Bridget was able to receive additional guidance from other individuals to address some of her teaching concerns, as her artifact shows with the image of the rescue helicopter. Bridget was observed by her seminar professor, Dr. Lazaro, as well as Next Educator facilitators, David Miller and Anne Campbell. Bridget cited their feedback as the most valuable to her although they were only able to visit her once each. Bridget also

frequently emailed and consulted with Dr. Lazaro. Both Dr. Lazaro and Ms. Campbell offered Bridget what she found to be the most helpful, supportive, and concrete feedback. Bridget reported that she tended to struggle to ask for help when she needed it but she tried to make a concerted effort with her professor and facilitator stating:

> So I always asked for help from the people who gave me help. Like Anne, I always had a question for her. And "Dr. Lazaro, what if I do this?" And we talked about it more and so, I felt, when people were willing to give me feedback, I was more comfortable talking to them.

Bridget found these individuals to be much more supportive than her cooperating teacher when it came to professional development. Bridget enjoyed Frau Smith's warm personality on a personal level but did not feel a strong match professionally in terms of communication and the amount and type of feedback given.

It appeared that Bridget's preconceived expectations of the role of cooperating teacher did not correspond to the reality of Frau Smith's role. Bridget made efforts to utilize professors, facilitators, and her peers to augment the level of support she was receiving but the student teaching experience was challenging given her day-to-day context.

Theme two: Understanding Adolescents

Students in the Next Educator program took a middle school teaching course as well as an adolescent development course along with practicum experiences in middle schools. Bridget was placed in a middle school for her student teaching and she worked with 6^{th}-8^{th} grade students. She often found herself reflecting on her own experiences as a

middle school student as well as considering how her students felt about themselves. Bridget shared an example of trying to determine if her interactions with her students were related to their developmental level:

> I change the seating chart every two weeks and every day [the students] come and ask "Do we have a new seating chart?" That's something I struggle with, I'm just like "Is this because you're in middle school? Is this because I can't relate to you?" Or is this because you never--I don't understand—is there another reason? Stuff like that. And so *I'm really trying to reconcile my college brain with their middle school brains.* You know? Because it's just, like, so different. You know when I was in middle school, I mean I was a little more rambunctious than I was in high school but I think most people were a little different in middle school. (emphasis added)

Bridget expressed amazement at how many times she had to repeat instructions, keep students on task, and adjust the pacing of her lessons. Bridget drew heavily on her background knowledge from her coursework but struggled with classroom situations that departed from discrete examples she had learned about or experienced before. Bridget offered an example of a student flying a paper airplane, a behavior the entire class observed and one which did not afford an opportunity to privately admonish just the student in question. Most of Bridget's background prepared her to approach a student behavioral problem quietly and discretely, but in this case, Bridget was caught off guard and unsure how to deal with such a public grievance. Bridget shared classroom management challenges with me, reflecting when she was midway through her student teaching:

> Some days are better than others but for the most part it's just, the kids are generally good and they know what to expect now and so now I'm working on the how to adjust to the minor [offenses]. You know like somebody's talking out of turn or when I'm talking and you know, just stuff like that. And they're playing with their pencil or drawing. Nothing that's necessarily super disruptive, it's not,

> you know, a jungle gym, but it's just stuff like that. So I'm working on moving around the classroom more so I'm ever-present, I guess. And you know, just being more discrete with the "that needs to be put away now." But then I'm also struggling with like, well what if a student—like here's Example A. Today I had a student, he made a paper airplane in some other class and he brought it to [German] class and he shot out the airplane and it stuck in the ceiling tile. Like everybody's like "Oh my god, he flew the plane! It's stuck!" It was like ok. "How?" You can't be that discrete with it, right? I don't know how you get discrete with stuff like that or if you just need somebody to come after class because of something where they've made a scene. So I'm struggling with like when do I just tell them to stop? And when do I need to whisper quietly "That needs to be put away?" When do I teacher-standing-next-to-me stuff? So that's that with the classroom management.

Bridget reported that her classroom behaviors were often informed by her own experiences as a student and the content of her Next Educator coursework. Bridget experienced difficulty when her middle school students' behavior was unpredictable and she could not immediately think of how to address it. Bridget might be seen as strong student of pedagogy, recalling clearly many classroom lessons, yet she the infinite possibilities of classroom experiences happening in real time were challenging to her.

Bridget described another telling experience, when her students would ask her many personal questions, and Bridget but found a way to deal with her students:

> [The students] asked me questions, like personal questions in English, "Do you have a boyfriend?" "Are you married?" "Do you have kids?" I answer in German to them. I'm like "Nein, ich bin zweiundzwanzig Jahre alt!" [*No, I'm 22 years old!*] And they go, every day, how old am I? I told them every day "Zweiundzwanzig! Ich bin zweiundzwanzig Jahre alt!"" [*Twenty-two, I'm 22 years old!*]. It's kind of funny how they don't remember anything. I'm just kind of like, "Whatever!" They're funny and I really like the kids because they're just so funny. I'm like "this is so middle school." But they're great, and most of the kids really do try hard and they try to pay attention and so it's good and I always have that one person I can ask to translate in English and they can pretty much do that.

Bridget found a strategy for combatting "middle school" personal questions by using German to respond. If the students did not understand the German she knew she could find a willing student to translate her playful answers. Here Bridget was able to trust her instinct and employ her own technique to resolve a potentially challenge classroom situation rather than referring back to black-and-white strategies she had learned in her certification coursework.

The repeated personal questions from middle school students required patience and clever handling. Bridget prioritized this need for patience and progressed over the semester to create systems to help her accomplish some of her classroom management goals. For example, Bridget learned to walk around the classroom while students were working and, at Dr. Lazaro's suggestion, she later brought small stickers to place on students' hands if they were working hard and on task. When she felt more comfortable later in the semester, Bridget brought in a German rap song to cater to her students' interest in rap music. One class did well with the musical activity but another class quickly became distracted. Bridget stopped the song and told her class "if the music is too distracting, we're not going to listen to it anymore." This is a sign of growth and improved confidence on Bridget's part because she stated "they were awesome after that."

Another of Bridget's goals was to work on pacing her lessons to be more appropriate for the adolescent learners. For example, early in her student teaching, Bridget would allot large sections of her lesson plans would 10, 15, and even 20 minute for partnered classroom activities. Bridget found that these periods of time were simply

too long to hold the students' attention while other activities required more scaffolding and guidance than she had anticipated. Bridget often discussed this with Emily Lazaro and, at Dr. Lazaro's suggestion, Bridget used a timer in her lessons which helped "a little." Even when her student teaching had ended, Bridget saw packing as an issue that she would work on: "By the end, I had a better notion. There were some times when I thought they were following along and they were not, but it got easier. Everything got better toward the end." Bridget made progress in pacing lessons for adolescents over the semester in her estimation but added that working with adolescents was "very hard."

Theme three: Target Language Use

Bridget may have had the greatest concerns about using German in her host classroom. Her apprehension intersected with the two themes that emerged from an analysis of her case, her interaction with her cooperating teacher and her interactions with her middle school students. At the beginning of student teaching, Bridget "agreed" with a TBALLI-1 item stating "the more target language a student hears, the better they will learn" and on the TBALLI-2 she "strongly agreed" with the caveat that the target language had to be in the form of "comprehensible input." Bridget continually expressed her interest in teaching German as a means to maintain and improve the language competence she had worked toward for nearly a decade. She felt that teaching, even at the middle school level, afforded her an opportunity to use German extensively.

Nonetheless, Bridget's difficult semester also yielded less than favorable results in how she envisioned using German. As stated in the discussion of Bridget's case, her

cooperating teacher, Frau Smith, did not use as much German as Bridget would have liked—both with Bridget and with the students students—and Frau Smith focused more on emotional well-being and rapport building. In addition to Frau Smith's occasional "native speaker errors" in the language, Bridget also found it difficult to receive assistance from Frau Smith when asking specific questions in preparation for the state content exam. For example, when Bridget would ask for explanations of a complex grammar construction from the preparation materials she was studying, Frau Smith did not know how to respond other than "it just sounds right that way," a common native speaker intuition. Bridget ultimately spent most of her exam preparation time in self-study using grammar texts and seeking additional explanations on online forums.

Bridget wanted and needed to use more German in her classroom because of the Next Educator requirements but found it difficult due to both her cooperating teacher's teaching style and the students' resistance to hearing and responding to German. In one particularly frustrating experience, while being observed by a Next Educator facilitator, Bridget had asked students to write out four nouns and four adjectives and then modify their gender and number. According to Bridget:

> [The students] had no idea what I wanted. And at first I gave it in German and I'll act it out in German and I'll draw on the board and I'll use props and if I have a picture I'll use a picture and use hand gestures and facial expressions. And then some kid'll say "Say it in English." And then I'll repeat it in English to them and then they still don't understand and so now I'm really confused, do they truly not understand or are they truly not paying attention?

This example may not show an ideal handling of student resistance to target language use but it illustrates how Bridget's frustrations that would sometimes lead to a break down in

goals for using German. Throughout the semester, Bridget would continually ask herself how much of the student confusion was due to target language use and how much was a result of other factors. Bridget felt knowing the reasons behind the students' confusion would help her to address their resistance to German.

When we later discussed ACTFL's position statement on 90% target language use, Bridget agreed that this was a good goal to aim for but that it was difficult to know what percentage of the target language was being used. She also explained that many factors could impact target language use, particularly the students and the teachers. She again reported her difficulties using German with her students and felt that their inability to stay on task made it difficult to reach them in German, even with strategies other than just speaking the target language:

> A lot of them, especially in middle school, just shut down. And they're like "I don't know what that means, I don't know what that means, I don't know what that means!" And then you can't get them to do anything for the rest of the period. And so even with, you know, so you'll be talking about a new word or demonstrate a new word and concept and I'd be speaking German and I'd be drawing on the board and making little hand motions and they are just like "I don't understand!"

Bridget said that she often struggled to get the students to do basic tasks and that she experienced moments when she had to sacrifice her German use in order to motivate students to accomplish anything at all.

On other occasions, Bridget's concerns about her own knowledge of German caused her to switch to English. Bridget's students struggled with basic phrases and commands—even those for which she had provided students a "cheat sheet"—and so when she was speaking German in class and needed a German word that she couldn't

readily think of, she felt there was no means of maintaining her instruction in German. One example involved giving students instructions on making a manipulative vocabulary tool:

> I said basic stuff in German like "schreiben Fuß" [*write foot*] but then like "on this flap" and I don't know how to say flap, this thing, this flap here, I just started speaking in English because I was like this is just going to confuse everybody because I don't know the word for this and I'm not even going to try.

While "flap" might not be a high-frequency word in terms of classroom German, Bridget's personal frustration, concerns about student comprehension, and her lack of strategies during her lessons for maintaining target language use resulted in more English use.

In our final interview, Bridget felt she was finally seeing almost all of her students progress in using basic German phrases such as "may I go to the bathroom" which she felt would "fly out the window" since she had finished. Throughout our interviews, she regularly expressed the need to "train" students to use the target language; Bridget speculated on her first inservice teaching experience:

> My biggest [priority]--especially if I'm ever teaching middle school or really just German I--it'll be for them to orally use German. I mean, that was a little low [level]. Fixed, memorized expressions, "Can I got to the bathroom?" "I forgot my homework," "I didn't do it." Just stuff like that so that they can kind of just use the language and hear it more and kind of realize it's not that hard. I mean, it's hard but level one is not that hard.

She struggled with the conditions in Frau Smith's classroom but took Dr. Lazaro's advice to use her host classroom as a sort of foil to also inform her on ways she would do her inservice teaching differently.

Bridget was deeply committed to good teaching but often felt she lacked the quantity and quality of feedback essential to developing and growing the "right" skills for teaching. She reached out to her professor, Next Educator facilitators, and her cohort of peers but struggled with the lack of consistent, constructive feedback from her cooperating teacher. Thus the mismatch between Bridget and her cooperating teacher resulted in challenges to Bridget's target language use.

Theme four: Motivational Factors

Though Bridget faced challenges in her student teaching, she remained motivated to do the work of teaching and to improve her German. Bridget grappled with the role of her cooperating teacher and her understanding of adolescent learning but her frustrations did not stymy her motivation to become a teacher.

Bridget was also receiving certification in English but expressed the desire to continue learning German and she saw teaching as one way to do so. Even with the difficulty she faced through her student teaching, Bridget planned on teaching German after receiving her certification and made herself a list of practices and techniques she wanted to continue using in her own classroom. Bridget explained that she did not want to forget the things she had learned during her student teaching, reporting:

> I really, really want to make sure that I can remember everything that I've learned this semester and through the Next Educator program…. I have a Word document of all these ideas that I want to try and implement and stuff.

Bridget remained committed to teaching German and was motivated to capture her ideas and plans for her future language classroom so she could implement what she had learned.

Bridget also explained that she was motivated to continue working on her German, even after she had taken her certification examination, because she anticipated some lag time between her fall graduation and finding a job teaching German. Bridget wanted to continue working on her German, explaining in our final interview:

> My goal is to just, you know, look over all my stuff. Kind of think about it and do online--cuz they have a ton of online discussions and activities--and, you now, watch German movies and I've got a ton of German books from my German lit classes. So I'll probably just read those and keep up with it. I don't, I'm not probably going to get real intense in it but just regularly being exposed. That's the word, exposed to it and just keeping up with it.

Bridget remained motivated, even after a challenging semester and with an additional licensure in English, to continue her work with German.

Case three: Nozomi Umeda

Nozomi—who specifically chose a Japanese pseudonym for this study--is an unmarried, Caucasian woman in her early 20s who earned her degree in Asian Cultures and Languages with a Japanese education emphasis. Nozomi studied Spanish in 8^{th}-12^{th} grade because of the "good teacher" offering it and even took the Advanced Placement exam. Though she was successful in learning Spanish, Nozomi wanted to learn Japanese based on an interest in Japanese cultural products such as anime and art. Nozomi only applied to universities with programs allowing her to major in the language and, once enrolled in the university of this study, she successfully petitioned to study abroad after four semesters of coursework instead of the required six. Nozomi explained that her desire to become a Japanese teacher stemmed from an inherent interest in teaching as well as encouragement from her family to include the teaching license in her program of work.

Nozomi was placed in a high school Japanese classroom. Because of the limited student enrollment in Japanese, Nozomi and her cooperating teacher, Kevin Fujimoto, were split between two schools. Mr. Fujimoto was a heritage speaker of Japanese and had completed his Japanese licensure in a different state. Nozomi was one of several student teachers that Mr. Fujimoto had mentored.

Nozomi's artifact, like Bridget's, provides a starting point for analysis of her experiences learning Japanese and learning to teach Japanese. Nozomi's artifact speaks to personal identity matters that were central in her life before and after the student teaching experience. In Nozomi's case, I will provide analysis after theme one and theme three; the analysis of theme two overlaps with three.

Artifact Creation: Cultural Identity Mapped Out

Nozomi spent a good deal of time pondering what type of artifact she wanted to design given her interest in art. She told me she wanted to do a painting, and came to our meeting prepared with an elaborate sketch. Nozomi and spent nearly two hours creating her artifact and she chose to include learning experiences prior to student teaching as well as allow for a space beyond her university experiences in her representation.

Figure 4.3: Nozomi Umeda's Artifact

Nozomi used the metaphor of a journey by train to represent her journey to becoming a Japanese teacher. Nozomi said that she had enjoyed travel by train in Japan and missed it so she felt it an appropriate image for her artifact. Nozomi's journey begins at the university, continues to her acceptance into the Next Educator program, then reaches her first teaching experience in her summer internship. Nozomi included the Japanese characters for elementary, middle, and high school denoting her practicum experiences in K-12 Japanese classrooms as a part of her Next Educator coursework.

The next stop is her study abroad experience in Japan where Nozomi included several key cultural icons such as the cherry blossoms and the hot springs. The tracks form a loop at the study abroad point because, according to Nozomi, being in Japan was a meaningful and salient point in her education. The next stop includes the characters for a teacher with whom she worked and the acorn icon of the College Board, representing her trip to Las Vegas for the advanced placement[3] summer institute. Nozomi then depicts her graduation followed by the image of a school, indicating her hope of finding a teaching position. The tracks then go off the map and return, given Nozomi's belief that her journey to Japanese teacher is ongoing.

Theme one: Cultural Identity

The single most important theme to emerge from my conversations with Nozomi was the centrality of cultural identity in her life. Nozomi was the only participant to choose her own pseudonym and she chose a Japanese name with special meaning to her. In our first interview, Nozomi wanted me to know that many of her habits and mannerisms were Japanese and that she might not make much eye contact with me during our discussions.

During our first meeting, Nozomi and I talked about culture and its relationship to language. Nozomi indicated a belief that culture and language were especially intertwined in Japanese but grappled with the same concept in relation to English:

> We're English speakers and we think that English isn't a part of a culture because there's these other countries who speak English and it's not like our language in

[3] "Advanced Placement" refers to advanced high school courses that allow high school students to place in higher-level college courses and earn college credits upon completion of these courses. See http://www.collegeboard.com/student/testing/ap/about.html for more. Advanced Placement teachers require special training through the institute program.

> America. But I, I've gotten to the point where I don't even know what America, American culture is anymore. I can't find it.

I asked Nozomi to elaborate more on her inability to "locate" American culture. With some consideration, she continued:

> It's just, when you're in Japan, they ask you "Oh what's popular in America?" or "Oh what's all this in America?" How do you say what is American food or what is American music? I mean, you can of course point at the 50s, or all these time periods where these events happened, but then if I was to nail down like in Japan, how you say "Oh well, you have this word during the fall for when the leaves fall down, they're pretty red," that's not here in America and I literally couldn't answer [the Japanese] all that time so then it makes me think, what is this? Am I turning non-American now? It's just… it's something I've always wondered and I don't know if it's a bad thing or a good thing or if it's just the world is coming together and we're not seeing it as much anymore.

Nozomi then shared an example of eating a "Texas burger" at a McDonald's in Tokyo, an experience which culminated with recorded horse whinnies pumped through a speaker. Nozomi seemed to find American culture in discrete products that either spoke for themselves in their globalized, stereotypical ways (e.g. McDonald's) or were simply devoid of any clear meaning that could be attached to their linguistic properties (e.g. "lake"). It seemed difficult for Nozomi to make cross-cultural comparisons of English words with Japanese words that were tied to elaborate experiences or customs and lacked one-to-one English translations. Where a word in English was a discrete signifier to Nozomi, a word in Japanese could elicit more, such as an entire experience or event. Several of my field notes included Japanese words that Nozomi tried to explain but did not feel she could fully translate for me. For example, one word that Nozomi shared was "ko-yo" and she provided a rough translation for me "how you say [in Japanese] oh well,

you have this word during the fall for when the leaves fall down, they're pretty red, that's not here in America."

Nozomi described the "high context" properties of Japanese as a feature of the language that appealed to her when we discussed the connection of language and culture. When asked specifically how the two concepts were connected, Nozomi explained:

> [Language and culture] are totally intertwined. Like I said, you have the polite and the plain forms and then there's like six different levels you can say thank you. You have to have the correct language in order to do the correct culture…. And there's just things that--it kind of makes it a part of their culture, and even with their words for festivals or with the things that they've named--things or towns, that's all from the language and it builds, I mean anime is a culture and that's a word that they made, so I don't think it can be separated in Japanese.

To Nozomi, Japanese words reflect culture and culture is reflected in words; the dissection of the two is impossible.

Nozomi frequently talked about how Japanese culture and language played an enormous role in her personal life. Nozomi used a daily planner from Japan, had Japanese apps on her cell phone, read Japanese books for pleasure, and enjoyed listening to Japanese music. She was also in a relationship with a Japanese man. Nozomi's professional life as a beginning Japanese teacher, clearly, also revolved around the language and culture she embraced.

When she was taking over a section of first year Japanese students during her student teaching, Nozomi wanted to speak about her background at parents' night. She shared with me her recollection of how she approached the parents "I said I know I'm white but I cook Asian food all the time, my habits are Asian, I'm as Asian as a white person will be so your kid will be fine." Nozomi felt compelled to express her personal

cultural identity—in addition to tacitly justify her status as a NNS of Japanese—as a central part of why her students would be in good care under her instruction.

Perhaps not surprisingly, Japanese language use for Nozomi was important. She had low anxiety about her language skills but readily admitted she still had much to learn. Nozomi saw the automaticity of her ability to code-switch as a good sign of proficiency: "How I am right now, in terms of my language, is where I want to be. I always want to improve but I'm really confident that I can just switch automatically and I don't have to think too much." Nozomi also cited the reaction of Japanese natives as evidence of her skill in the language. She reported they often approached her in English, assuming she could not speak Japanese, but were pleased when they realized her level of proficiency and then went out of their way to welcome her. Even Nozomi's Japanese boyfriend would remark "You're a foreigner, why are you this good at Japanese?"

Theme two: The Professional is Personal

Though Nozomi may have eased her mother's mind by pairing a Japanese liberal arts major with teacher licensure, her decision to become a teacher was hardly an act of filial compliance. Nozomi noted that she had always had an interest in teaching and enjoyed tutoring in high school. To explore her interest in teaching more, Nozomi applied for and received a summer teaching internship through the national program, Breakthrough Collaborative. Nozomi cited this experience as one of the most important, beneficial experiences on her path to student teaching. Nozomi taught middle school mathematics for two summers, solidifying her commitment to teaching:

> I was the department head for math and so I started doing all these teaching methods and it was like "why don't I teach language in this way?" It seemed a lot more interesting and different…. With language, [the content] is just so much more of your communications.

Nozomi employed a variety of methods and techniques during her internship, teaching her own class of middle school students, free to experiment as she liked while also being able to consult with her mentor teacher (an inservice teacher) about any concerns or challenges. Later, Nozomi explained how she made connections from math teaching to Japanese teaching:

> [The mentor teacher] kind of showed me you can do different things with your subject in a new way that's interesting for the students and that made me want to do that with Japanese. That [influenced] every other lesson plan that I had to do, I could kind of stretch what I was thinking about in a way. Oh, if I want to do this grammar what if I do this instead of just the usual thing?

Nozomi's reflexivity about teaching mathematics naturally translated into her thinking about language teaching. Nozomi's passion for teaching approached that of her passion for Japanese.

Nozomi was placed in high school Japanese that tended to have smaller classes of students then the other languages. While all of the participants in this study showed tremendous regard for the well-being and education of their students, Nozomi indicated at the beginning of her student teaching that her primary goal was "to be there for the students." This is in contrast to the myriad concerns of many student teachers which tend to be "survival" concerns such as classroom management or lesson pacing. Nozomi was not without stress, however, and quickly learned that student teaching was more labor-

intensive than she had anticipated. Even so, she reiterated her commitment to her students throughout our meetings.

Even difficult students did not dissuade Nozomi's efforts. For example, Nozomi and her cooperating teacher, Mr. Fujimoto, coordinated a pen pal project with a school in Japan. One student continually failed to produce letters and Nozomi and Mr. Fujimoto decided together that they had to remove the student from the activity. Nozomi shared this and the student's other behavioral problems on the seminar blog. While many (student) teachers might simply feel frustrated and overwhelmed with the student, Nozomi summed up her feelings saying:

> I don't want to lose him, and we are trying to make ourselves approachable but I really feel he just is not taking advantage of any opportunity we give him. Hopefully he does not lose interest in the class, I would hate for that to happen.

Nozomi was also fortunate to have an excellent working relationship with her cooperating teacher. Nozomi said she did not feel like Mr. Fujimoto's student but more like a fellow, junior teacher with him in the role of mentor. Mr. Fujimoto described his role as a cooperating teacher as "a model, a guide." Mr. Fujimoto wanted to become a cooperating teacher because he felt he had "something to offer" but also because he "could also learn from the student teachers." Both Nozomi's and Mr. Fujimoto's views of their roles were complementary and led to a positive professional relationship.

One of the challenges of teaching Japanese, discussed in greater detail in theme three, was that Nozomi and Mr. Fujimoto worked in two schools in order to have full time course loads. Nozomi devised a shared teaching schedule with Mr. Fujimoto in an

effort to ease the burden of working between two schools, something he appreciated. Mr. Fujimoto explained in our interview that he viewed himself as a cooperating teacher who would "offer support when [he] could" and also valued seeing student teachers "bring their own ideas and being reflective."

One area in which Mr. Fujimoto guided Nozomi was in communication and conflict resolution. Mr. Fujimoto allowed Nozomi to contact students' parents and read Nozomi's emails to assist her in communicating diplomatically. Mr. Fujimoto also referred students who approached him to talk with Nozomi so that she could learn to better defuse student issues. Nozomi cited Mr. Fujimoto's assistance in increasing her communication and conflict resolution skills as another factor that helped her more skillfully attend to the needs of her students.

Over the course of the semester, Nozomi experimented with a variety of activities. She believed an assortment of activity types was essential in stimulating learning, stating "Don't get too much in a routine. The kids can kind of see your routine, they know, 'Oh, we're going to be asked these questions, here she goes again.'" From her first teaching experience to her student teaching, Nozomi remained committed to varying and redesigning student activities. One primary goal of these activities was to foster student interaction. When I asked Nozomi about her goals for her first inservice teaching position, her reply was that she wanted to plan more interactive activities:

> where the students really switch [partners] and they get to know each other. And having them remember the information they gained from each other. Like not just asking "when's your birthday?" but having it come up later where it's like "Hey, if you remember this, if you're actually remembering, communicating, that's another part of language learning!"

Nozomi was dedicated to building a strong sense of community in her (future) classes as a means to buttress her students' language and cultural learning. This was evident throughout her student teaching as well as in her goals for future work.

It should also be noted that, Nozomi chose to stay on working with her Advanced Placement students even after fulfilling her student teaching requirements and graduating. Nozomi noted that the students needed another instructor to practice speaking for the advanced placement exam, and she felt compelled to be a resource for them.

Theme three: Less Commonly Taught Languages

The last major theme that emerged in Nozomi's case is that of the Japanese language itself, deemed a "less commonly taught language" (LCTL) in the United States. ACTFL's 2011 enrollment report indicated that in the 2007-2008 academic year, Japanese represented .82% of student enrollment in foreign languages. Nozomi took Spanish in high school but had to wait for college to begin taking formal Japanese courses. Further, the Asian Studies program in which she was enrolled was considerably smaller than its Spanish or French counterparts and thus had fewer elective offerings. Nozomi complained "I would have liked to have taken a literature course or a specialized linguistics class, the kind of thing the other [language] students probably wish they didn't have to take." In addition, most examples in her Next Educator pedagogy courses came from former Spanish teachers. While some activities and techniques could be adapted

across languages, concerns unique to Japanese were not as easily addressed or even discussed.

The most obvious issue for student teaching was that Nozomi and Mr. Fujimoto were only able to carry a full course load by working between two schools. Although the two schools had some overlap in the content taught, different textbooks were used at the two schools. Nozomi and Mr. Fujimoto were using five different textbooks and accompanying curricula across the sections they taught, creating challenges in consistency and planning, as well as in their workload.

Another challenge of working between two schools was the difference in student populations. School A was an arts magnet school with generally motivated students while School B was a larger urban high school with a diverse student body. All world language classes were held in portable trailers and the Japanese program had been canceled for the upcoming year, adversely impacting student motivation.

One of Nozomi's goals for her first teaching position involved stabilizing and growing Japanese programs. As in the case of School B, Nozomi was acutely aware of how suddenly a Japanese program might be cut. Further, the quality of Japanese education was important to her. She felt a number of high school programs lacked rigor, focusing mainly on cultural topics taught in English. Nozomi wanted to implement and develop stronger and more robust programs.

Teaching a LCTL, however, also had benefits. As mentioned in the discussion of the previous theme, Nozomi was incredibly dedicated to her students and the lower enrollments allowed her to have more one-on-one contact with the students in her classes.

Nozomi also felt there was a type of student who chose to take Japanese since it required a deliberate decision rather than the "everyone takes Spanish" option. Both Nozomi and Mr. Fujimoto shared a kind of synergy in their teamwork but also stated they enjoyed being "singletons" or the only teacher of a language in a given school; the autonomy to run their own program was appealing.

Theme four: Target Language Use

Nozomi had similar feelings about the importance of providing students with substantial amounts of target language. Nozomi noted that she was one of the few students in her cohort who did not have difficulty using a large amount of target language during the student teaching experience. On her TBALLI-1, Nozomi remained neutral about the use of English for some tasks and explained "I've noticed sometimes you do need English but I don't think it's you just *have* to do." Nozomi moved to "strongly disagree" at the end of student teaching, however, and she said "As much as possible, try to use the target language. Every little bit helps." Nozomi, like Rachel, indicated that she felt she needed to overcome student resistance to target language use but felt more empowered to do so in her classroom, in part because her cooperating teacher had already established a more input-rich classroom environment.

Whereas some of her classmates struggled to meet Next Educator's required 90% target language in their student teaching, Nozomi did not have this problem and was pleased to have a section of Advanced Placement Japanese in which she was able to use more complex language and structures. When I asked about ACTFL's position statement

requiring a minimum of 90% target language use in all contexts, Nozomi was both supportive and critical. She thought that 90% was doable, but that English was simply necessary in certain cases whether or not the 90% goal would be affected. Nozomi felt some procedural tasks, instructions, and "pep talks" were examples of situations that might require English, explaining: "90% isn't a problem…I believe I would be able to do it but there just comes a time when you have to be realistic." Nozomi was comfortable and confident in her approach to target language use.

While her classmates might have had difficulty finding ways to employ maximum language in their classrooms, Nozomi was surprised to learn during a discussion in her seminar that the majority of her cohort peers only thought of target language use in terms of teacher talk in the classroom:

> I even asked the other teachers do they plan in their other language and they don't plan in their other language. I find myself planning in the language just to keep myself thinking about it so that as I teach, I think about what comes next in the language.

Nozomi so enjoyed planning Japanese lessons that she created Google Docs for the students and posted abbreviated lesson plans so they could anticipate or review the trajectory of the lessons. Additionally, as indicated in the above quotation, Nozomi felt written preparations in Japanese supported her classroom speech and that teacher planning was not a separate, removed element from target language concerns.

Theme five: Motivational Factors

Interwoven in the previous four themes is Nozomi's clear characteristic as a highly motivated language learner and teacher. Nozomi was motivated enough to begin teaching herself Japanese in high school where it was not offered as a course. Nozomi also successfully petitioned to study abroad a year earlier than her university program recommended. Amazingly, Nozomi wanted to study abroad after just two years of formal Japanese language learning and she found her study abroad experience to be somewhat connected to the prescribed curriculum from a textbook. Nozomi described the experience:

> I went through an intensive program in Japan and so you would really do one textbook a semester and at that point, I was like ok, you're going to do reading, you're going to do writing, but I want to do something else. And in the first semester, there really wasn't much divergence from that but the second semester, when we went to the conversation part, we were able to explore and do more interesting things.

While in Japan, Nozomi wanted more interaction than just in her language program and found ways to engage in speaking outside of her classroom once she had developed greater conversational skills.

Nozomi was driven to improve her oral fluency as much as possible, explaining "It was [study abroad] that really pushed the language for me. I mean, I'm still really studious and I did really well in class to begin with, but that just really honed it in and made it fluent." Nozomi added that she was still motivated to learn more Japanese, reporting "I'm still not even super fluent but, it's good enough, I can carry my own I suppose…. and that's where I am now, just here and teaching, always trying to listen to

things and watch things." Nozomi sought out ways, even while teaching, to improve her Japanese.

Chapter 5: Analysis, Limitations, Implications, and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to describe the thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes of three participants over the course of their student teaching experiences. In particular, I examined the influences of their past experiences, coursework, and other sources of input on their student teaching (e.g. peer support, role of cooperating teacher). In this chapter, I will analyze the findings from Chapter 4. I also provide a cross-case analysis of common themes that were identified when the cases were examined together. I will also outline the limitations, implications, and recommendations for future research. Finally, I will conclude with a summary of the findings in relation to the research questions.

ANALYSIS OF THE CASES

Case one: Rachel

The themes that emerged from Rachel's case included organizational skills, content knowledge, and target language use. Rachel was a successful student teacher who confidently took over sections of French from her cooperating teacher and was able to implement more target language use than her cooperating teacher. Rachel's cooperating teacher trusted her completely and allowed her to take on as much responsibility as Rachel wanted, thus she also had the autonomy to experiment with her teaching practices. Rachel successfully completed her student teaching experience and accepted a fulltime teaching position before the semester had concluded.

Analysis of theme one: Organizational Skills and Self-Efficacy Theory

When examining Rachel's case, it seems clear that her organizational skills are the base upon which she builds her teaching skills and increased her confidence in enacting her plans. One way to analyze these notable patterns of thought and behavior is through the concept of self-efficacy. As stated in Chapter 2, teacher self-efficacy is an

"elusive construct" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001); it seems obvious on the superficial level yet is far more challenging to define and measure in meaningful ways. Several models of self-efficacy exist but for this study, I will use Bandura's (1986) four-fold construction of self-efficacy that includes an individual's mastery experience, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological states. Bandura's approach connects particularly well with the concept of teacher-efficacy.

The first source of self-efficacy is the mastery experience which Bandura (1986, 1997) considers dominant over the other three features involves an individual achieving successes on challenging tasks rather than only undertaking simple, easy tasks. Bandura (1986) posits:

> Performance levels on difficult tasks speak more strongly to underlying capabilities when much effort has been exerted under conditions conducive to maximum performances…. Individuals who experience periodic failures but continue to improve over time are more apt to raise their perceived efficacy (p. 402).

One example of a mastery experience in Rachel's student teaching can be seen in how she designed lessons for the multiple French levels she was teaching, choosing to put in maximum effort rather than risk producing mediocre lessons. Rachel explained:

> Now I'm [fully] teaching level one, on-level two, and level three, pre-AP. So three, three different preps which is a minimum and I initially thought I might want to take on more than that and now I'm like eh… it's a lot. And I'm not like hating it, I love it, but I didn't realize how much effort it really takes. Because you can slap together a lesson and go for it but in order to actually create this awesome lesson that goes really well that [the students] enjoy and you enjoy and they actually learned from, it takes more effort than you even imagined.

While Rachel shared her love of planning on many occasions, she also spoke of the many obligations she had for her seminar, to her family, and to her own personal needs. Rachel might easily have designed less labor-intensive lesson plans with all these additional

obligations but found it much more important to work through the challenges to create "awesome" lessons to benefit her students.

Because Rachel was student teaching and not simply visiting a classroom with the task of giving a lesson in isolation, she was able to observe students' reactions to her lessons over time and assess their learning. Rachel's student observations and evaluations were powerful motivators for her, stating "I can see their progression." This observation is in keeping with Bandura's (1997) assertion that this type of experience is the most powerful, as he explained "…mastery experiences are the most influential evidence of whether one can muster whatever it takes to succeed" (p. 80).

As noted earlier, Rachel took a full time, regular teaching position near the end of her student teaching experience. In this position, Rachel's school required her to include the state's standards in her lesson plans for her students. Rachel explained that this requirement assisted her in assuring a balance of modalities was present in all her lessons. She also posted the standards in accessible terminology on her classroom wall to help the students make connections to the goals of her lessons and how these goals contributed to their skill development. Rachel frequently stressed the importance of having thorough lesson plans and continuously improving them.

The second type of self-efficacy experience that Bandura (1986) identified was that of vicarious learning. This type of learning involves learners observing another individual executing a task in order to compare and evaluate their own abilities for a similar task. As Bandura (1986) states, "people judge their capabilities partly by comparing their performances with those of others" (p. 403). This kind of learning experience is common in many teacher education programs, including Next Educator. Teacher candidates are often required to observe inservice teachers, their peers in instances such as a micro-teach assignment, as well as to draw on their extensive

backgrounds as students (e.g. Lortie, 1977). All of these experiences provided material for comparison and the three participants, along with their peers, were asked to formally and informally share their observations and analyses of other teachers, prompting reflection that could and should foster self-efficacy through vicarious experiences.

All student teachers in Next Educator began their student teaching observing the cooperating teacher before beginning to gradually take over teaching responsibilities. Rachel's observations of Ms. Hendricks led her to compare how she might teach when she assumed greater teaching responsibilities in the classroom. Rachel even suggested that she might have performed better at giving certain lessons or controlling classroom behavior than her cooperating teacher as noted in the previous section. This notion was supported by her cooperating teacher, stating that when Rachel began teaching "she was able to get [students] under control better than I could because she's more talented in that area." In this example, Rachel described the beginning of the school year and suggests she would have done things differently than her cooperating teacher:

> For the most part I think Michelle is awesome, but I do wish as far as behavior rules she was a little stricter. She is really strict on dress code and she has great procedures set up, but her behavior rules are pretty non-existent. The only issues we ever have are chatty kids and there are times when that is fine (transitions, group work - especially in a foreign language class!) but it happens when she is talking and she tolerates it until it gets gradually louder and then a series of "shhhh"s. Lately it has been better, but I feel like the kids are confused since she didn't say on the first day of school: no talking when I talk... it should be obvious but I don't think it is for high schoolers.

Bandura's (1986) definition of vicarious efficacy information involves observing another with roughly equivalent capabilities as those of the learner. Bandura (1986) states that seeing another perform successfully raises a learner's self-efficacy while seeing a

failure may lower the learner's self-efficacy. Both Rachel and her cooperating teacher, Michelle, indicated they viewed each other as roughly equivalent peers. Rachel, however, diverged from Bandura's construct when she suggested her self-efficacy increased by seeing Michelle's challenges in classroom management but feeling she could perform more effectively.

Rachel observed her Michelle's approach to classroom management, noted how the students reacted, and mentally compared how she might have acted in the situation. Indeed, when Rachel began fully student teaching and when she took her first job, Rachel shared that she felt she could have better outcomes with classroom management. For example, when Rachel began fully student teaching, she directly explained to students that they were not allowed to talk when she was. In this example, Rachel chose to behave differently than her cooperating teacher and with greater confidence. Rachel's observations of Michelle caused her to imagine her own capabilities in a similar situation and how she might be able to shape the student outcomes. Though Bandura does not consider this type of reverse-vicarious learning, Rachel's self-efficacy was impacted as she reflected on Michelle's modeling—positive or negative.

A third influence on self-efficacy, social persuasion, refers to input from significant actors in a learner's life, often involving encouragement such as "you can do it" (Bandura, 1986). This inspiration from others may strengthen the learner's feelings of self-efficacy and positive feelings about being able to accomplish the desired outcome on a task. While social persuasion may be a large part of the student teaching process via conferences with cooperating teachers, facilitators, peers, and others, Rachel often invited social persuasion. Rachel emailed her seminar instructor, Dr. Lazaro, when she had specific questions asking for input on how she had performed and the student outcomes. At one point, Rachel was so frustrated with her students turning in late assignments that

she shared her email with Dr. Lazaro on the class blog, soliciting feedback from her classmates as well. As Bandura (1986) explains "social persuasion alone may be limited in its power to create enduring increases in self-efficacy, but it can contribute to successful performance if the heightened appraisal is within realistic bounds" (p. 400). Rachel valued the practical advice, pedagogical discussions, and pep-talks from others during her student teaching and explained that they supported her learning. For example, Rachel shared that she found constructive criticism encouraging and she often employed the feedback in her work as soon as she could:

> The more you tell me "You could have done this or been more like this," I learn really quickly and I can make adjustments like that. That was one of the compliments I got from the observer last year, she was like "you can make adjustments very quickly. Keep it up!" Because that year, I'd teach one [lesson] and then teach another back-to-back--the same lesson--and so [after] the first one I would teach, a cooperating teacher would give me some pointers like "Oh maybe try this or this" and I mean, I wouldn't let that faze me, my lesson would be 30 times better within five minutes when I did it the next time. And so just taking [advice] and doing it instead of saying "Oh no, I messed up, I must be terrible." That really made a difference.

Rachel's interpretation of the verbal persuasion as a means of supporting her and bettering her teaching allowed her to perform with higher self-efficacy.

Finally, physiological and emotional conditions may impact self-efficacy as it is human nature as "people rely partly on information from their psychological state in judging their capabilities" (Bandura, 1986, p. 401). During our final interview, Rachel cited sleep as being critical to her student teaching success. While many an undergraduate student values sleep, this is an example of Rachel responding to her somatic cues in an attempt to remain physically and mentally sharp for her lessons. As

noted earlier, Rachel often arrived to school early, usually before her cooperating teacher arrived, and valued the time she had to reflect on her plans for the day. She made a concerted effort to be at her best in order to perform well and face her responsibilities.

Analysis of theme two: Content Knowledge

The theme emerging from Rachel's confidence in her knowledge of French and Francophone cultures does not, in isolation, signify success in her instruction. Related to content knowledge is the essential ability to teach it and this hybrid construct is known as pedagogical content knowledge, or PCK (Shulman, 1987). More specifically, Shulman (1987) describes PCK as "that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of understanding" (p. 8). PCK is a useful lens through which to analyze Rachel's confidence in her content and how she taught language and culture. For example, in our first interview, I asked her if she identified more as a "teacher" or a "language teacher." Rachel replied "I'd have to say a language teacher because it's really a lot different than another style of teaching. I couldn't necessarily take everything I've learned from my language teaching classes and apply them to, say, a math class." Rachel indicated that she felt there was a specialized kind of instruction required for language teaching that was not transferrable across content areas. The other participants did not directly address PCK, though that is not to say that they did not have an understanding of it. Rather, it emerged as a more salient feature in Rachel's case, perhaps given her confidence in teaching and high levels of self-efficacy.

When isolating her content knowledge, Rachel had a pragmatic self-assessment of her skills. As noted previously, Rachel felt comfortable that her linguistic skills were better than those of some teachers, worse than those of other teachers, but she was working to improve them as she had not reached an end-state in her language learning.

Rachel also felt that there was a vast amount of cultural knowledge associated with the Francophone world and, while willing to grow in her understanding, Rachel did not have a good deal of concern about the limits of her current cultural knowledge base.

Rachel struggled to separate discussion of her content knowledge from PCK in our interviews. This may have been due in part to the fact that she was preparing for a high stakes state certification exam that covered language and cultural knowledge but also evaluated instructional knowledge. Rachel felt the exam gave her an extra "push" to improve her French, particularly given that she did not feel she had volunteered to speak in her French classes as much as she could have during her major coursework. Rachel also felt the exam helped set the bar high for assessing pedagogical knowledge of teaching candidates, explaining that the exam "is testing language teaching and stuff so you can't just know your content, you have to be able to teach as well."

Rachel's reflections on PCK may also have been prompted on the TBALLI inventory item "anyone who is fluent in a language can teach it well." Both times she took the TBALLI, Rachel was emphatic in choosing "strongly disagree" on this item. After taking the TBALLI-2, Rachel drew on her current inservice teaching experience to describe her strong feelings on the matter, explaining

> As I have seen and been told--you have to be taught [how] to teach. My department head told me she would never guess that I was a first year teacher and that the difference between me and someone completing alternative certification is HUGE! Not everyone has what it takes to be a teacher. You can know everything about your subject and have no idea how to get that across to anyone – let alone children.

Rachel lived and taught in an area that featured numerous alternative certification programs with varying degrees of rigor, circumstances that put her traditional licensure

path into clear relief according to her supervisor. Rachel began her position with preexisting beliefs about the importance of PCK and her supervisor's comments reaffirm what Rachel believed about the importance of teacher education along with her content studies.

Case two: Bridget

The themes that emerged from Bridget's case included the role of the cooperating teacher, understanding adolescent learning, and target language use. Bridget was placed in a middle school German classroom with a cooperating teacher who focused more on student self-esteem than on setting high expectations for German learning. Bridget was committed to her teaching but struggled throughout the semester to find a "right" way to do the work of language teaching.

Analysis of themes one and two: Self-Doubt and the Need for Input

Theme one for Bridget described the role of her cooperating teacher and theme two described her need for a better understanding of how to teach adolescents. I have combined these themes in this analysis because both Bridget's concerns about her cooperating teacher and about teaching middle school students may be examined through common frameworks. This analysis mirrors the artifact the Bridget created. When in the rough seas asking "Am I doing it right?" Bridget was expressing concerns about herself as a teacher. I will analyze her need for explicit input on her teaching through Fuller's (1969) stages of concern model as well as through Bandura's (1987) self-efficacy theory. As noted earlier, the artifact also featured two key actors, Emily Lazaro and Anne Campbell, as sources of support, help, and suggestions for Bridget. I will analyze Bridget's interactions with and learning from them through Vygotsky's (1979)

knowledge construction model because of its focus interaction with others as a site of learning.

To begin, Bridget felt a strong need for input on her teaching and where she stood as a new teacher. Although Bridget was committed to teaching and improving her German skills, the themes that emerged from her interviews, blog posts, and artifact were couched in concerns, worries, and anxieties about doing the work of student teaching successfully. One way to understand Bridget's case is through Fuller's (1969) work on teacher stages of concern. Fuller (1969) researched the common concerns of inservice teacher and synthesized related, prior research to conceptualize teacher concerns as a trajectory over time. These stages include a brief time of non-concern prior to preservice teachers' contact with students, early concerns about adequacy and teaching roles, and later concerns involving student achievement and self-improvement (Fuller, 1969). Bridget may be seen to fall into the early teaching phase in which the top concerns are with the self, namely "Where do I stand" in the host school and "How adequate am I?" (Fuller, 1969, p. 220).

Bridget was very concerned about the students' learning and wanted to serve them as best she could but her concerns were often based in how she, the teacher, could most effectively teach while remaining in good standing with her cooperating teacher. Bridget struggled with her role in the cooperating teacher's classroom, particularly with how much she could or could not stray from what she perceived as Frau Smith's preferred teaching style. She was also concerned with how she could teach to the adolescent stage of development, trying to reconcile her "college brain with middle school brains" in terms of classroom management, lesson design, and target language use.

Like many teachers, Bridget prioritized her work in the classroom. As stated earlier, she first tried to establish and maintain effective classroom management by

creating a seating chart, telling students what was expected of them, and teaching basic German phrases to the students in hopes of supporting their target language use. Bridget wanted to find ways to use German in her classroom management but found this difficult. Bridget posted on the seminar blog the basic German commands she planned to teach the students in order to support her target language use but questioned herself, adding "would that be weird? Should I just start teaching?" In this case, Bridget waivered on how to help students adapt to her teaching in German, distinguishing between teaching with the target language and "just teaching." Bridget's uncertainty is in keeping with research indicating that language teachers may find it daunting to conduct classroom business and management in the target language (e.g. Bateman, 2008, Horwitz, 2005).

Bridget also struggled with her cooperating teacher's decision not to assign homework and the priorities Frau Smith placed student development, potentially at the cost of language learning. She articulated her concerns about both teaching adolescents and in being a host classroom on her seminar blog, posting "I am concerned, however, that Mrs. Smith runs her class differently and because I am in middle school, they will not be able to adapt as well to me as if I were [teaching] in high school." Bridget's concern that her teaching style was better suited for high school students demonstrates her searching for her place in Frau Smith's middle school classroom, similar to Fuller's question of "where do I stand?"

Similar to the questions asked by new teachers in the stages of concern model, "How adequate am I?" and "Where do I stand?" self-efficacy theory can also be used to situate Bridget's concerns about herself and her teaching. Bandura's (1987) model includes four facets that affect self-efficacy: an individual's mastery experiences, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and somatic factors. In Bridget's case, all but the physiological were discussed as factors in her feelings of self-efficacy.

I begin with mastery experiences, which Bandura (1987) cites as having the most potential to impact self-efficacy levels. Individual mastery experiences involve learning by doing with the perceived difficulty of the task and resulting successes or failures potentially altering levels of self-efficacy. Bridget experienced frustration and questioned her understanding of adolescents on many occasions, as noted earlier, and identified classroom management as an area she wanted to improve.

Bandura (1987) states that repeated mastery experiences met with failure may lead to decreased levels of self-efficacy. In one example, Bridget posted on the seminar blog at a loss when students did not comply with her instructions for an exam re-take:

> Some students failed the 1st test of the year. Our policy is to always allow retakes. I do not like to give class time to retake, unless most students failed, but that means re-teaching. But they were taking a quiz today and they were so far ahead of the other classes that I slowed my lesson down and gave them class time. So I made another review. I told them EVERY class I saw them that they could not retake unless I had their new review packet completed to show that they had studied (many students have been re-taking and failing again because they weren't studying). My first class today: no one did the packet. They knew that I was giving them class time to retake, but no one did it! It was homework and when I first handed it out I gave them time to work on it in class! …. So that is frustrating.

As mentioned earlier, the inability to assign and collect homework was frustrating for Bridget as was general classroom management and procedures. In our final interview, just after student teaching, Bridget looked forward to having her own classroom with the hope of having more control over these concerns. Bridget explained how she envisioned her first teaching assignment, feeling that her own classroom might allow her to implement other policies and procedures to combat the challenges she had faced as a student teacher. Bridget explained: “It’s going to be my classroom and I can do what I

want with it. And hopefully it will work out better and I mean, that's another concern, what if my classroom is a disaster? What if I have all these great ideas but can't execute them?" It might follow that the repeated difficulties Bridget had during her student teaching lowered her self-efficacy; this can be seen in the concern that her first teaching position might be a "disaster."

Vicarious learning, or learning by observing another individual, was also an issue for Bridget. Like Rachel, Bridget sometimes experienced what I call a "reverse vicarious" situation. As discussed in theme one, when Bridget observed a complex grammar explanation that her cooperating teacher used to describe verbs and the students' subsequent confusion, Bridget imagined herself teaching in a different, more accessible way. Thus, Bridget used a vicarious experience to inspire a mastery experience. Unfortunately for Bridget, however,—and her feelings of self-efficacy—Frau Smith stepped in during Bridget's own teaching of the same concept to impose the original way of presenting the information. Bridget was frustrated with this situation, mentioning it during our interviews and also asking her peers for feedback on the seminar blog. Ultimately, Bridget accepted her role as a guest in Frau Smith's classroom, writing on the blog "I do not think it is my place to tell her to butt out of what she is responsible for." What might have been a successful mastery experience for Bridget ended poorly and such results, according to Bandura (1987), have the potentially to significantly lower feelings of self-efficacy.

The last facet of the self-efficacy theory that can be seen in Bridget's case is that of social persuasion, a kind of pep talk from another to inspire improved feelings of self-

efficacy in an individual. This type of input was important for Bridget as she reached out on the seminar blog, to Emily Lazaro, and to Anne Campbell throughout the semester. Bridget needed a specific type of social persuasion, however, that involved more than just "good job" but also contained support and concrete advice. The social persuasion from Frau Smith, for example, did not tend to improve Bridget's self-efficacy levels because Bridget characterized it to be "Just 'everything's good.' Ok, a little more specific would have been nice." While Bandura did not characterize social persuasion as having a particularly strong impact on self-efficacy, the social persuasion that Bridget got from her cooperating teacher did little to raise her feelings of self-efficacy.

For Bridget, this significant need for input and feedback was a central concern. Throughout her student teaching, and without sufficient feedback and support, Bridget's self-efficacy did not grow. The next section explores her desire for knowledge construction, a means of answering the questions of "doing it right" that Bridget asked throughout her student teaching experience.

Bridget relied heavily on her student teaching seminar professor, Dr. Lazaro and Next Educator facilitator, Ms. Campbell, to provide her with the input and advice ("coming to save me and help me out and *give me what I need* [emphasis added]") she required in order to go from her tentative thoughts ("I kind of knew how to do it") to more confidence in her classroom dealings. Indeed Bridget often implemented what her mentors suggested and found the results positive. For example, when Bridget struggled with classroom management, Dr. Lazaro suggested purchasing a stamp and putting an image on students' in-class work when they were on task and productive. Bridget

purchased star stickers and began circulating through the classroom and putting stars on the students' hands when they were on task, a system that Bridget said "worked well" and she maintained throughout the remainder of student teaching. Bridget also shared that she wanted to continue use of this system in her inservice teaching.

An observation from another Next Educator facilitator, Dr. Miller, helped Bridget reflect on some of her ongoing concerns about teaching adolescents and how to approach the students more calmly. Bridget explained:

> Dr. Miller kind of advised me to break things down more simply for the students. That's one of my things I notice I'm struggling with is I've always been a really great student—tell me once, maybe twice, and I'll get it for the most part, you know. College, used to dealing with college kids, the professor tells us to do something and we do it. And so I think I'm having a hard time—I'm getting better at it—to just, these are sixth graders and seventh graders, they're 12 years old. Step by step.

Following her discussion with Dr. Miller, Bridget reassessed the pacing of her lesson plans and decided she wanted additional guidance than just Dr. Miller's discussion of one classroom observation. Bridget visited Dr. Lazaro in her home to redesign her upcoming lessons. Dr. Lazaro guided Bridget to simplify long, elaborate lessons and advised her to use a timer to stay on task. Bridget was pleased with the results:

> I think it was the pacing because at first I had expectations like bam, bam, bam! And then even with the timer the transitions took forever. Like I would say "Setzen Sie alles weg, außer einem Bleistift oder Kugelschreiber" [*Put everything away except a pen or pencil*] or whatever and like half, some kids would do it because I've used that term [before]. And some kids would just kind of be looking around and I'd be like "Jeder, auf Sophie zu suchen. Es ist gut, sie hat ihre Sachen zusammen" [*Everyone, look at Sophie. It's good, she's got her things together.*]. And they're just like "Huh? What are we doing? What's going on?" "Look around! What have other students done that you have not?" But it's, the transitions still took a while but getting them focused was easier at the end.

Bridget still faced challenges in directing her middle school students but employed the timer and lesson plans that Dr. Lazaro had recommended and made some progress. In our final interview, Bridget stated that classroom management remained a work in progress: "Even towards the end, when it got a lot better, I struggled with it… it's hard."

As mentioned previously, Bridget experienced challenges with her mentoring relationship with her cooperating teacher, her understanding of adolescent learning, and her target language use. Interwoven in the three concerns was Bridget's strong desire for feedback to support her learning and teaching, as illustrated in her artifact. Bridget identified cooperating teachers as key figures in providing this kind of feedback but struggled when her cooperating teacher did not meet her expectations for mentoring. Bridget also considered her seminar instructor, Dr. Lazaro, and a Next Educator facilitator, Anne Campbell, as essential support systems. Finally, Bridget made use of the seminar blog and frequently expressed her gratitude for the feedback she received from the peers in her cohort. Bridget explained to me that she had a high need for input on her teaching though at times found it difficult to reach out for it.

Bridget trusted her instincts to some degree but also wanted guidance to support her efforts to make progress in her teaching. This need for support in order to grow can be examined through the construct of the zone of proximal distance (ZPD), commonly understood by Vgytosky's (1978) definition: "The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Bridget worked with her seminar instructor and the NE facilitator as much as she could to share what she had done in the classroom and to reflect on additional hypothetical instructional situations. Using the feedback she received, Bridget tested other behaviors and practices in the classroom. The

input that she received from her interactions with "more capable peers" allowed Bridget to learn in ways she likely would not have been able to on her own.

One key actor, Bridget's cooperating teacher, Frau Smith, presented her with challenges in negotiating the role of the cooperating teacher, the role of the student teacher, and the interaction between the two of them. Unlike many peers in her cohort, Bridget was not placed with a cooperating teacher with whom she had worked previously, resulting in a longer period of time for Bridget and Frau Smith to become acquainted. On the seminar blog, Bridget expressed concern to her cohort in her third week of student teaching "I am just worried about what she expects from me. I know that we need to just sit down and talk about it all but I am so jealous of you all, jumping in and knowing what's going on. I still feel lost." Bridget entered her student teaching with expectations about the roles of a cooperating teacher and student teacher and ideas about the degree to which the relationship could impact her teaching but these expectations were not met during her student teaching experience. The relationship between cooperating teachers and student teachers and the wide, often times mismatched range of beliefs about their roles are well documented in prior research (e.g. Booth, 1993, Zanting, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2001).

In Bridget's case, the feedback from her cooperating teacher was encouraging and cheerful but their interactions, in Bridget's estimation, lacked in-depth discussions of teaching practices. Bridget's feelings are similar to those of the participants in Martin's (1996) study in which cooperating teachers stressed interpersonal connections and support as key aspects of their roles while student teachers wanted additional assessment and challenge. In her interview, Frau Smith reported to me that she believed that modeling her teaching practices was the most important way to serve a student teacher. This approach diverges from Zanting et. al's (2001) findings in their study of student

teachers and cooperating teachers, suggesting some teacher mentors overlooked discussing their classroom choices and actions as they "tend to overlook the articulation of their practical knowledge as an essential part of their mentoring role" (p. 78). Bridget indicated difficulty in approaching Frau Smith for specific feedback while Frau Smith shared a desire to use modeling as a central part of her work as cooperating teacher. There was a clear disconnect between each woman's perception of her role. Bridget was further troubled by her desire to receive a positive recommendation from Frau Smith and therefore felt powerless in addressing her concerns on their roles without jeopardizing her reference for a teaching position.

In part because she lacked the cooperating teacher support she had anticipated, Bridget felt strongly about engaging in conversations with her cohort peers both in class, on the blog, and outside of class. She stressed the importance of talking to someone who was also new to teaching and wasn't simply trying to provide solutions or "fix it" as a facilitator might. Bridget stated how important it was for her to interact with her peers and use their support to grow in her teaching:

> In the cohort I have right now, it was just so comforting to see them that first day after I was already in the school for a week and I'm freaking, I have no idea what's going on…. and just seeing them was like ahhhh…. thank God! The peer support from Next Educator was great, one because it's language-specific so we're all dealing with the same basic, you know, 90% [target language], it's so much! After class, we stand outside to talk for an extra 15-20 minutes, you know? "What are you doing in your class?" "Yeah, well I don't know about that approach…" It's nice. We have our cooperating teachers and facilitators but you're just kind of like "but you're not new at this." My peers may not have all the right answers but it's nice just to have a little, just to vent to them. It's nice to have that support and they're going through the same thing and they might have the same challenges with your cooperating teacher. Or "Oh, I can't get this one kid to shut up!" "Oh, well here's what I did today." It's nice, we're learning together and we're figuring it out together.

Bridget valued the experiences of her peers because they were closely related to her own yet diverse enough to enrich their offerings of support. Vygotsky's (1979) work centers around social interactions as a site for constructing knowledge and for Bridget, peer interactions served as place for mutual learning.

Recent research has shown that peer feedback can be beneficial to preservice teacher development (e.g. Arnold & Ducate, 2006; Manouchehri, 2002; Yang, 2009) and Bridget's case clearly suggests potential benefits from peer interaction. Bridget often utilized the seminar blog as a source of interaction with her peers and the course instructor to support her teaching knowledge. While the blog was required, Bridget found it to be a particularly excellent resource and embraced it as a useful course requirement. In her five posts, Bridget shared the most pressing issues she was experiencing, rarely asking direct questions for commenters but indicating in her follow-up posts and in our interviews that the advice she received was helpful and often something she tested in her teaching. Bridget's first post received a response only from Dr. Lazaro, the seminar instructor, but all other posts drew multiple comments from Bridget's peers.

Bridget's job search raised concerns for Bridget in terms of her adequacy and knowledge as a teacher, and she posted on her blog, trying to get answers about how to begin a job search. In her last blog post, Bridget described her worries: "As far as the job search goes, I feel like everyone else knows more than me." Bridget asked her peers if it was acceptable to contact principals about a position opening or if she might be considered pesky and flagged as an overeager, undesirable candidate. Bridget's last post

of the semester with the included the following, telling sentence: “I just feel like there are all these secrets that everyone knows but me.”

In summary, Bridget’s student teaching experience involved a quest for knowledge construction with her peers, seminar instructor, cooperating teacher, and Next Educator facilitators. The amount and quality of feedback from each source, however, varied greatly and Bridget found it challenging over the course of her student teaching to obtain and implement the input she received. Bridget’s final blog post suggesting that others had secret knowledge echoes the plea on her artifact, “Help! Am I doing this right?”

Case three: Nozomi

The themes emerging from Nozomi’s case include cultural identity, Nozomi’s blending of the professional and personal in teaching Japanese, the experience of teaching less commonly taught languages (LCTL), and target language use. Nozomi was the only participant who had had a more significant teaching experience prior to student teaching when she received a summer internship teaching mathematics. Nozomi taught high school Japanese between two different schools, following the schedule of her cooperating teacher. Nozomi and her cooperating teacher had a collegial relationship that supported a strong sense of mentorship.

Analysis of theme one: Language Learning as a Transformational Experience

Much research on teacher development cites successful student experiences as a motivating factor in becoming a teacher (e.g. Lortie, 1979). One way to understand Nozomi’s development into a Japanese teacher is through an analysis of her own language learning. Nozomi began studying Spanish in high school and took the advanced

placement exam, but she also began pursuing her interests in Japanese at this time. Nozomi provided to be a highly motivated, autonomous language learner and she began teaching herself beginning Japanese while in high school. Nozomi purchased CDs and used the lyrics as guides to her learning, watched anime shows, and also acquired a few Japanese books and magazines. Nozomi described her self-learning:

> I didn't use a book or anything, although I bought some. It was more like, I looked up things online about how to read Japanese (the first two basic syllabry - hiragana and katakana) and slowly taught myself. I mainly tried singing along with the songs that I liked, and as I looked at the lyrics, I compared what the letters were and roman-alphabetized them myself. It definitely was more enjoyable, and I did not keep to any schedule. I mainly just tried copying the Japanese lyrics to songs, sing along with them and romanize the words as I go. Then, I slowly learned how to read basic characters.

Nozomi's autonomous learning is remarkable; according to Benson and Huang (2008) "it is widely accepted that most individuals lack the capacity to direct their own foreign language learning, at least in the early stages" (p. 425). Nozomi's high motivation, autonomous spirit, and access to online resources speak to her exceptional ability and talent.

According to Schmidt (2005), 80% of Japanese language learners in the United States have non-Japanese language backgrounds and Nozomi clearly falls into this majority group of learners. Perhaps not surprisingly, Nunn's (2008) research on the motivations of Japanese Heritage, non-Japanese Asian, and non-Asian learners of Japanese showed differing types of motivation among the demographic categories. For non-Asians like Nozomi, Nunn found motivations generally stemmed from factors of high self-efficacy, specific goals for Japanese use, and intrinsic motivation. Nozomi

indicated that her main motivation for learning Japanese was intrinsically motivated; she had a deep personal interest and began studying on her own to fulfill it. Nozomi also had little anxiety about her proficiency and had goals to use Japanese in her future work, whether as a teacher or in another career. Nozomi's motivations were consistent with Nunn's findings about non-Asian Japanese learners.

Nozomi was the only student teacher of the three to use overt cultural images, references, and target language in her artifact. As noted earlier, Nozomi frequently shared that Japanese was a central part of her personal and cultural identity. Nozomi identified as Caucasian but stated that Japanese cultural practices were part of her everyday life including her meals, entertainment, and even mannerisms in social interactions. While numerous cultural identity models and constructs exist, Kramsch's pithy observation dovetails with Nozomi's feelings: "Asking how many languages you know is only asking half the question. You should also ask, 'In how many languages do you live?'" (2012). Nozomi intentionally chose to live in Japanese as much as possible while in the Southwest United States.

Kramsch and Whiteside (2007) seek to break down the notions of native speaker/non-native speaker dichotomies in second language learning research. They venture that:

> a language learner would be someone who not only accrues new linguistic knowledge, but who also feels, thinks, behaves in new ways, and who puts his or her various languages in relation to other another and in relation to his or her many roles and subject positions (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007, p. 918).

Indeed studying Japanese influenced Nozomi's ways of thinking, for example when she admitted that she found definitions of American culture perplexing. Nozomi adopted new Japanese behaviors on both practical and social levels and often spoke Japanese in her personal life with her boyfriend. As the map in Nozomi's artifact shows tracks continuing on past her teaching certification, we might also see Nozomi as a subject with dynamic roles who *lives in* Japanese and English.

Analysis of themes two and three: Warmth in Teaching & LCTL

Themes two and three that emerged in Nozomi's case were professional/person identity and the status of Japanese as a LCTL, respectively. One of Nozomi's most frequent discussion topics in relation to her teaching was that of connecting with students. Nozomi's summer internship teaching mathematics inspired her to find ways to think about teaching in relation to Japanese but she found that teaching any content area was rewarding because of the interaction with students. She stated throughout our interviews and in blog posts that she was committed to making connections with her students and supporting them both with language development as well as with their individual needs and concerns.

While much of Vygotsky's work is known for its conceptualizations of knowledge construction in terms of cognition, Vygotsky also included affect in his work, stating there was an "existence of a dynamic system of meaning in which the affective and intellectual unite" (1962, p. 8). This union of cognition and affect were present in Nozomi's work during student teaching. She focused on teaching content as much as she cultivated relationships with her students in order to leverage their learning as whole people, rejecting the transmission model of instruction.

The role of personal relationships between instructors and students is also discussed in Worthy & Patterson's (2001) examination of preservice teachers' tutoring work with literacy students. The researchers found the affective component to be an important element in teacher development, explaining:

> In addition to other components of the methods class and tutoring program, the caring relationships that preservice teachers established with their students played a major role in their learning, confidence, and appreciation of the responsive nature of teaching and learning. Tutors also commented on the positive influence of relationships on students' motivation and learning (Worthy & Patterson, 2001, p. 336).

Similarly, Nozomi felt that she learned from her students and was also able to use her caring presence to foster student learning. For example, Nozomi volunteered to work at a Japanese pronunciation contest after her student teaching had concluded because she still wanted to support some of her students who would be participating.

While there is more research on warmth in teaching in a general context, emerging research on Japanese as a second language particularly suggests the importance of teacher caring. For example, in Tsang's 2012 study, the top three factors that motivated United States students of Japanese (N = 182) were "enthusiastic teacher," "friendly and approachable teacher," and "teacher's willingness to help" (p. 150), respectively. All three qualities can be seen in the closing paragraph of Nozomi's teaching philosophy:

> I enjoy seeing the students' faces light up when they understand an idea or convey information, and I want to show them various sides of the language to drive their personal interests. As a multifaceted language, the use of Japanese realia has so much to offer in terms of teaching material, and the students are fortunate to explore such an exciting language. By being an active teacher that encourages communication in Japanese and uses authentic materials, I hope to foster intrinsic learning of the Japanese language. I want students to be engaged with the material and excited to learn. Through these methods, I believe my students will feel

> comfortable enough in my classroom to practice Japanese openly so that their skills grow.

Nozomi's words may demonstrate the warmth in her teaching, such as her goal of ensuring that "all students can cherish Japanese language and culture" and hoping to "spark an interest in Japanese culture in each student." Nozomi's words reveal her appreciation toward both her students and Japanese language and culture.

ANALYSIS ACROSS CASES

Shared theme one: Reflecting on Target Language Use

Target language use continues to be discussed earnestly in the field of language education and the three participants discussed the importance of target language use during our meetings. Target language use was of special concern for the participants in part because they all had to take state exams on their languages and because target language use was frequently discussed in their seminar. The Next Educator program subscribed to ACTFL's (2010) position statement on a minimum of 90% target language use in all classroom contexts; this benchmark also made up a portion of the summative assessment by which all student teachers in the program were evaluated. Because many of the cooperating teachers with whom the student teachers were placed used differing amounts of target language and the classrooms had varying student populations and contexts, the required 90% target language use created challenges for some of the student teachers. Dr. Lazaro grappled with the problem, explaining:

> It's really hard and we [at Next Educator] have these expectations for [the student teachers] but it's almost like we forget that they're not in their own classroom and they can't necessarily do things the way … like the evaluation forms don't seem to have that built in, as if to say "we recognize that you're not in your own

> classroom and you might not have even set the expectations for the classroom and things like that *so we kind of work between the real world and the hypothetical world.* (Emphasis added).

Dr. Lazaro articulates that state of "in-betweeness" (Sinner, 2012) that can occur as the student teachers serve as guest teachers while also envisioning their plans for their first inservice opportunity.

Nozomi did not report significant difficulties in her classroom contexts in terms of using Japanese though Rachel found she had to work with her students to reestablish more expectations and set the parameters within which she would use French. Rachel experienced pushback from her students that she was able to overcome and her cooperating teacher stated that Rachel spoke more French in the classroom than she did. Bridget, on the other hand, found the classroom context a constant challenge for implementing and maintaining a substantial use of French. Although the three participants had different classroom contexts and varying successes with target language use, Rachel, Nozomi, and Bridget all agreed strongly about the value of using a large quantity of target language and agreed with the 90% benchmark.

In summary, the three participants struggled in varying degrees to deal with students and target language use but all were mindful of it throughout their student teaching. Bateman (2008) describes similar findings in his review of target language use by 10 student teachers of Spanish, observing:

> [an] issue seems to be student teachers' lack of knowledge about or skill in using techniques for making themselves understood in the target language. The avoidance of teaching culture or grammar in the target language, frequent code switching, and immediate translation of target language statements to the L1 seem

> indicative of a gap between student teachers' goals of maximizing their target language use and their knowledge of how to reach those goals (p. 26).

While all three participants employed multiple strategies in target language use, they still had moments of shortcoming based on issues that were both personal (e.g. fatigue, lack of a key vocabulary word) and student-generated (e.g. unwillingness to comply). The three participants indicated it was an ongoing struggle to continue learn how to effectively use target language that in part involved trial and error with specific groups of students.

Bateman (2008) briefly acknowledges the role of the cooperating teacher as a factor in target language use. Rachel's confidence in her French language skills and her feelings of self-efficacy in the classroom allowed her to, at times, exceed the target language use that her cooperating teacher was employing. Nozomi, in contrast, was able to follow her cooperating teacher's lead in target language use and found it a helpful way to continue growing her own language skills, particularly in light of her upcoming proficiency examination. For Bridget, however, her cooperating teacher had other classroom priorities ahead of target language use and the cooperating teacher's native speaker German errors made Bridget cautious about the input ahead of her licensure exam. The student teachers' target language use, in these cases, occurred at the intersection of the classroom context and the student teachers' individual beliefs and feelings of efficacy.

The study of target language use often focuses on code-switching, or moving between the first and second language. Macaro's 2001 study of code-switching among

student teachers of French makes a call for greater consensus in the field of language teacher education about the use of English in the foreign language classroom. Macaro states:

> We need to establish, though research, parameters for L2/L1 use. As a teaching community, we need to provide, especially for less experienced teachers, a framework that identifies when reference to the L1 can be a valuable tool and when it is simply an easy option (p. 545).

The participants in this study all offered varied beliefs about when English could or should be used in the classroom, but they agreed that the 90% benchmark was reasonable. The participants also employed strategies to support their target language use, though with varying degrees of finesse and success. Nonetheless, as Marcaro argued, the participants were operating without an overarching target language use framework.

Shared theme two: Motivation

Bridget, Nozomi, and Rachel present three compelling cases of motivation in language learning. All three participants were living in the Southwest United States in an area where Spanish could be considered a de facto second language yet the three women chose to pursue careers teaching a language other than Spanish or English. The three participants also self-identified as successful language learners and were committed to maintaining (if not growing) their language abilities through their work as teachers. From their beginnings as language learners to their current work and as novice teachers, the participants were highly motivated language users.

One useful motivational framework specific to language acquisition is that of Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System* in which he lays out three dimensions to

describe L2 motivation. The dimensions are tied closely to the language learner's identity and personal beliefs because, as Dörnyei (2009) and others have asserted:

> L2 motivation researchers have always believed that a foreign language is more than a mere communication code that can be learnt similarly to other academic subjects, and have therefore typically adopted paradigms that linked the L2 to the individual's personal 'core,' forming an important part of one's identity (p. 9).

The dimensions comprising Dörnyei's (2005) theory are: 1) the ideal L2 self which involves envisioning oneself as a L2 speaker; 2) the ought-to L2 self which involves envisioning the qualities one ought to possess in order to avoid negative outcomes when learning language; and 3) the L2 learning experience which includes the environmental and situation-specific factors in language learning. I argue that these dimensions describing the motivation of L2 learners can also be applied to the motivation of learning to become a language teacher.

Dörnyei (2005) described the first motivational element of the ideal L2 self as "a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (p. 105). The three participants in this study wanted to become successful users of their L2 as well as skillful teachers of the L2. As language learners, the participants strove to close the gap between their current L2 skills and what they envisioned as an acceptable or ideal proficiency level. Reconciling the gap between their present skill level and a desired skill level served as motivation for the participants' language learning as well as for their development as language teachers. For example, Bridget shared:

> I didn't think about being a German teacher in high school until I got to college and I was like "I don't want to lose my German." I spent five years learning it and so I decided to do the German certification program so it helped me to keep learning and maintain my German.

The three participants were motivated by their own desires to continue learning their language because they did not feel they had reached an end point. This was evident as the three cited the certification proficiency exam as a motivating factor; they did not believe that they had stopped learning their language when they began student teaching. Rachel and Nozomi expressed strong desires to return to France and Japan, respectively, and also considered travel a factor for continuing to improve their language skills.

The participants also felt that they had progress to make as language teachers and had visions of what that ideal self would look like. For example, near the end of the study, I asked each participant to describe how she envisioned herself as an in-service teacher and what that meant. For each participant, there was motivation to continue growing and learning to teach because she knew her current and ideal teacher selves were not one in the same. For example, Nozomi commented that she knew she had to learn to plan curriculum on a larger basis and, explaining: "Planning, getting better at planning the things on a year or semester scale. I want to be like 'oh you can plan this and [students] will get better." Nozomi saw a discrepancy in her current self as compared to her future, ideal self, and was motivated to make changes to her work. Both Rachel and Bridget had similar thoughts as they imagined ways to improve their future teaching.

The second point of Dörnyei's motivational theory involves an avoidance of undesirable results by being motivated to hone the "attributes one believes one *ought* to possess (i.e. various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to *avoid* negative outcomes" (pp.105-6, emphasis in original). In a typical L2 classroom, this type of motivation might be seen as studying the L2 to avoid receiving a bad grade The participants in this study were certainly avoiding negative performance in their student teaching seminar assessments and later on their certification exam. While student teaching, the participants were also motivated to learn L2 skills specific to the classroom

environment to avoid incomprehensible or inappropriate communication with students. For example, Rachel struggled with the pragmatics of quieting her class in a way that was authentic, understandable, and suitable. I asked Rachel to walk me through an instance when she had to carefully think through how she would use French in a classroom situation and Rachel gave the following example:

> I had to--and it's not even that I don't know it-- it's like it'll leave my mind or I have to sit there and think about it, and it feels weird just stopping to think about what you want to say to [the students]. So you're like "Um, just stop doing that!" I've had to slow, like I've had to find a way to say how I want to say "be quiet." Because I could say like "tais-toi" [*shut up*] but that's not necessarily nice. I could say the really mean way of saying it but I'm not going to say that. And "fermez la bouche," [*close your mouth*] I just don't like it, it's weird. So I've just been saying "*Silence*!" It's easy--but just little things like that. Cuz at first I'd be like "Oh I want them to be quiet but I'm not gonna say it that way, oh just be quiet." And then finally I was like "Oh, *silence*." That's a good all-around, nice word. It's posted in the cathedrals when you visit, so yeah. It's like little things, you're like "how do I say that?" (Emphasis added).

In the above example, Rachel was motivated to seek out the most appropriate way to give a classroom command that her students would understand and, hopefully, respond to. Rachel felt she knew the French for the task but had to sort through pragmatic concerns, a task not easily executed in the midst of delivering a lesson. For example, Rachel was motivated to develop a repertoire of useful, accessible version of French based on her concerns of negative outcomes such as over-using English, using harsh language, or being incomprehensible to students.

Dörnyei's third dimension to L2 motivation is the learning environment, that which "concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (p. 106). All three participants indicated that they were

motivated by strong classroom teachers, both for their own language learning and as models of teacher practices. For example, Bridget saw her own teachers' attitudes toward their work and content area as a motivating factor in becoming a language teacher, explaining "I'd say 95% of my teachers I really liked and you could tell they loved their job and what they did." Nozomi shared a similar sentiment from her early language learning experiences, explaining "I had a very good [Spanish] teacher" which encouraged her to continue with Spanish throughout high school and later, to feel she had the language learning ability to learn Japanese. Rachel reported that after too many drills during high school, the more communicative style of her university instructors was "awesome" and encouraging.

As for their learning experiences in student teaching, the participants were impacted by their environments and contexts, in keeping with Dörnyei's third dimension involving situatedness. Rachel and Nozomi had favorable views of their cooperating teachers' teaching styles and found the classroom to be a space where they could implement and experiment with their teaching. For example, Nozomi shared her thoughts on her cooperating teacher, explaining "He has really good practices. I've liked seeing how he does the routine in his classroom." Nozomi was comfortable in her relationship with her cooperating teacher and felt that she was able to learn from him while also having the freedom to make her own choices and implement her own practices in his classroom. In our final interview, I asked Nozomi what one of her biggest take-aways from student teaching would be. Nozomi said that her mentoring relationship with her cooperating teacher was one of the most meaningful experiences from student

teaching, explaining she valued "working with the teacher as a type of colleague. It wasn't so much that [my cooperating teacher] was above me but rather, we worked together so that built teamwork skills."

Rachel also felt that her cooperating teacher created an environment in which she could be experimental and innovative. Rachel appreciated the fact that her cooperating teacher had gone through the same Next Educator program and shared some of the same teaching approaches and concepts from it. As noted previously, Rachel struggled with Michelle's classroom management skills but Rachel actually enjoyed their conversations about planning and lesson development, explaining "I like learning how to teach things well and we've been talking about best practices and teaching vocabulary in context." Rachel found her discussions with Michelle to be helpful for reflection and learning and she also had the self-efficacy and confidence to adapt to Michelle's more hands-off style. For example, Rachel described Michelle's style when it came to Rachel's teaching, explaining "She doesn't really recommend that I do a lot. She kind of guides me as I go… She says 'well this is how I'm teaching my kids so teach that and see how things go for you.'" While this approach might not be useful for some student teachers, Rachel's abilities and teaching style made this arrangement workable for her and allowed her great freedom in testing her new teaching skills, something Rachel was highly motivated to do. This freedom will also likely serve her well in her new teaching assignment.

Bridget, however, was more tentative about her cooperating teacher's classroom being a space where she felt entirely motivated to perform. Bridget felt she had to balance her cooperating teacher's expectations against the ways she wanted to teach and

explore, something she found troubling. Bridget struggled with some advice she received from Sue Hanson, a facilitator from Next Educator, about how to interact with her cooperating teacher. Bridget shared:

> Sue Hanson said 'I don't want you to suck up to your cooperating teacher but don't p--- them off.' And I'm so worried about p---ing Frau Smith off! …. So I feel a lot of pressure to teach the way she wants me to teach. Or not like how she *wants* me to teach but the *way* she teaches.

Bridget may be seen to have negatively experienced Dörnyei's third dimension of motivation that involves that quality of the learning environment and experience. Her motivation for teacher development instead is limited to her ideal self—Bridget's efforts to close the gap between her present self and the ideal, teacher self she wanted to be. Bridget also demonstrated a kind of motivation stemming from the ought-to self in which she avoids negative evaluation from her cooperating teacher but did not have as much motivation to experiment with her teaching as the other participants did.

Although each participant had very different language learning and student teaching paths, their motivation remained high at the end of the student teaching. The three participants looked forward to having their own classrooms and implementing their own instructional styles. The participants all reported a desire to continue to improve their language—even after the certification examination—and to return to the target countries for travel. While Rachel secured a job during student teaching, Nozomi and Bridget were eager to stay in the field and, at the time of this study, were diligently pursuing opportunities.

LIMITATIONS

This study was qualitative in nature and employed a case studies methodology, thus limiting the generalizability of the findings. Further, the three participants represented the teaching of French and Japanese in the Southwest United States and thus the teaching of languages in other geographical settings was not examined here. Additional research focusing on the teaching of other languages in other contexts may reveal differing themes, patterns, and insights. For example, teaching Mandarin in Arizona may be very different than teaching Spanish, a de facto second language. Conversely, teaching Mandarin in the Pacific Northwest may be very different than teaching German.

Another limitation is that my knowledge of French and francophone cultures is significantly more robust than my understanding of Germanic and Japanese cultures; I know only a few words of the languages and I only have a rudimentary understanding of some of their salient grammatical features. Because I had a background in French and Francophone cultures, I was able to negotiate meaning with Rachel in a way that was different from my conversations with Bridget and Nozomi. While distance from a particular topic at times invites new insight, it can also present challenges.

It is also important to note that the seminar instructor and the three Next Educator facilitators were all new to their roles and the cohort was no longer in contact with the primary instructor they had had for several semesters. The seminar instructor, for example, received her contract very late in the summer and so she was unable to meet and get the know the student teachers until the first day of class in the fall semester. Given the new instructor and facilitators, many procedures changed and the student teachers' previous understandings of Next Educator policies had to be updated.

Another limitation was my lack of classroom observations of the student teachers and the cooperating teachers. This research design did not include observations given practical concerns about obtaining permissions for access to the school districts and students. While stimulated recall of lessons was employed during the interviews and data triangulated from numerous sources, it is nonetheless limiting to not have field notes from actual classroom observations.

Finally, it is a truism in qualitative studies that the researcher is an instrument of data collection and bias is inevitable. I made every effort to provide a rich description of the participants, establish a chain of evidence, and state my positionality in order to account for and reduce researcher bias. Any mistakes or misinterpretations in this study are, of course, my errors alone.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study provide further evidence of the complexity of becoming a language teacher, particularly while working to build the necessary proficiency to do the work of teaching. The certification mandates of the state, the requirements of the university, the climate of the host classroom, and the expectations and skills of the student teachers create an intricate site for language teacher development. Through my interviews with participants and analysis of the blog and artifacts, I have formulated several implications for possible educational practices.

To begin, target language use remains a highly debated topic in the field of language education (e.g. Cook, 2001; De La Campa, 2009), particularly following ACTFL's (2010) position statement calling for a minimum of 90% target language use in any classroom context. Given that numerous teacher education programs are required to set student teacher target language use goals at 90% by accreditation agencies such as

NCATE or have set it at such a level given their credence in ACTFL, the impact on student teachers must be considered. For example, the Next Educator program included the 90% benchmark on student teacher assessments but lacked a formal means of acknowledging that the student teachers were in part impacted by the host classrooms within which they taught.

Because there are numerous reasons that (student) teachers employ English (e.g. Bateman, 2008; Bayliss & Vignola, 2007; Macaro, 2001), it is essential to provide preservice teachers with a solid underpinning in the understanding of the benefits of target language use, how and when to appropriately use English and the target language, how to make language choice decisions in a variety of situations, and how to assist students in becoming accustomed to classroom target language use. Many language education programs embrace the communicative style of language teach which involves an input-rich target language environment, including input from the teacher, and its benefits have been celebrated (e.g. Davin, Troyan, Donato, & Hellman, 2011). Nonetheless, communicative teaching does not necessarily rule out any use of English and student teachers should be made aware of moments where appropriate insertion of English may be effective.

Further, language teacher educators need to have a greater awareness of student teacher's proficiency skills outside of passing licensure exams. For example, some student teachers may switch to English when they struggle with the specialized vocabulary of classroom teaching even if they would prefer to otherwise continue in the target language. For example, Bridget had difficulty asking her students to write on a flap of a foldable vocabulary project and Rachel mentioned that often times cultural topics could not be taught in the target language. Providing student teachers with strategies for developing classroom language and employing it efficiently is one way that

target language use could be preserved when a teacher wanted to do so but simply lacked the lexical or grammatical items or strategies to do so.

Another implication of this research is additional evidence of the importance of the cooperating teacher's role. Numerous factors may contribute to the availability of a pool of cooperating teachers however, given the impact of the cooperating teacher on the student teaching experience, every effort to recruit excellent instructors must be a top priority by language teacher education programs. Greater articulation between university facilitators and cooperating teachers would be beneficial, at times perhaps including the student teacher in conversation rather than working one-on-one to mentor the student teacher.

Further, student teachers should be prepared for their role as a guest in an inservice teacher's classroom, balancing a sense of ownership and commitment to teaching but also maintaining an awareness of the cooperating teacher's position. Both the cooperating teacher and the student teacher should have very clear, specific ideas about their roles and interactions. For example, Bridget's desire to improve her German with her cooperating teacher may have overstepped her role as guest-teacher in Frau Smith's classroom. Similarly, those who evaluate student teachers should use caution in isolating the elements to be assessed in order to be prepared for some situations outside of the student teacher's control. While the student teacher assessments may include some state-required components, university requirements should be carefully designed to address the "in-betweeness" that a student teacher may experience in a host classroom.

Finally, creating a network of resources and support for student teachers may be very helpful. The Next Educator students were in a cohort and the three participants all commented on the sense of camaraderie and support they felt from it. Because the student teaching experience is so intense and can create a sense of vulnerability among

some student teachers, their emotional and individual concerns should not be overlooked. Incorporating a variety of human, online, and peer resources in a student teaching program to support the emotional wellbeing of student teachers is recommended.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One area in this study that merits further investigation is student teachers' use of the target language. It would be useful to have additional studies employing both qualitative and quantities methods to provide complimentary types of data and make generalizations more feasible. Research on the quantity and quality of target language used by student teachers and their experiences developing classroom-specific language are important areas for further research. As states and universities move to more assessments of language proficiency, it is crucial to examine the impacts of these metrics on language teacher development. For example, what does the classroom language of a teacher who received a rating of intermediate high look like in comparison to one who received a rating of advanced low? Do such levels remain static after becoming an inservice teacher or do they change over time? The matter of teacher language proficiency and usage promises to remain under scrutiny and studies addressing it are essential.

Greater examination on the development of preservice language teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching also warrant further attention. Findings from this study indicated that the cooperating teacher and context of the host classroom may impact belief maintenance and rejection.

A related direction for research that this study points to is conducting longer-term studies of preservice, student, and novice language teachers. Longitudinal data would

contribute to the limited body of research on K-12 language teachers in the United States and their development over time.

Finally, further examination of state certification requirements and the impact of professional organizations' recommendations for teacher preparation (e.g. ACTFL/NCATE) would be helpful. In a time of increased standards, metrics, and high-stakes testing, it is crucial to better understand the ramifications of these factors for language teacher education.

CONCLUSION

The main research question guiding this study is: "How do preservice language teachers think about language teaching and evolve during the field experience?" Interwoven in the themes that emerged from each participant are answers to this question. For example, Rachel found that she could implement at least 90% French use in her classroom despite initial concerns. Bridget began finding ways to manage a middle school language classroom, admitting she had more to learn but feeling that she had progressed. Nozomi discovered new ways to relate to students and communicate with them, even under difficult circumstances.

The first research question also asks about the participants' thoughts on target language use and if their beliefs or thoughts were altered over the course of student teaching. Nozomi was and remained the most confident in her ability to use at least 90% Japanese in her classroom. After some initial struggle, Rachel was also able to use 90% French. Bridget attempted to use 90% German but, given the nature of her host classroom and the challenges with middle school students, Bridget found she was not always able to meet her goal. Regardless of their experiences, each participant indicated

an agreement with the 90% goal and reported that they would attempt to adhere to it in future language teaching.

The second research question asks "What areas of coursework, theoretical understandings, past experiences, and/or prior knowledge do preservice language teachers identify (or not) as informing their teaching during the field experience? How do they see these sources of knowledge in relation to their development as (language teachers)? All three participants cited the Next Educator coursework as being somewhat influential in their teaching. Past experiences as language learners were also central to the participants' beliefs about both successful and unsuccessful approaches to teaching.

The third question asks: "What are other sources, in addition to beliefs, of instructional planning and choices in the classroom?" While each participants drew on her preparation by Next Educator, each was also motivated by the state certification exam to be aware of both language pedagogy and target language use. Further, the cooperating teacher had a significant impact on the student teachers' choices. Bridget felt the least agency in teaching the way she wanted, concerned about a reference from her cooperating teacher. Nozomi balanced her own approaches to teaching with her cooperating teacher's feedback from their joint-planning sessions. Finally, Rachel essentially assumed all responsibilities for her sections of French and was viewed by her cooperating teacher as a co-teacher. The role of the cooperating teacher and the context of the host classroom were key issues in how the student teachers made classroom choices.

The responses to the research questions, then, provide a glimpse of the process of becoming a language teacher. This process is challenging and complex, involving an acquisition of linguistic and cultural knowledge as well as pedagogical knowledge. The participants in this study acquired their knowledge through a sequence of educational

coursework, their major degree, and through practicum experiences, culminating with a semester of student teaching. The three participants found the student teaching experience to be more labor-intensive and involved than they had anticipated and found that their role as a guest in the cooperating teacher's classroom impacted their thinking about their (future) teaching. In summary, this study has illustrated some of the intricacies of becoming a language teacher including the challenges of classroom management in a language class, the demands of using target language, and the motivations of future language teachers.

Appendices

APPENDIX A1: STUDENT TEACHER CONSENT

Title: Learning to Teaching and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages
IRB PROTOCOL #2011-06-0111
Conducted By: Kelly Conroy
Of The University of Texas at Austin: *Foreign Language Education* 512-XXX-XXXX

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research will also describe this study to you and answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this consent for your records.

The purpose of this study is to better understand how student teachers of Languages Other Than English who are non-native speakers of the language they teach experience their student teaching semester.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

- Participate in five confidential half hour interviews with the researcher
- Share your lesson plan reflection journal, lesson plans, classroom worksheets, and other educational materials you design for teaching during the interviews
- Fill out questionnaires on language learning and teaching lasting approximately 30 minutes.
- Create a simple artifact (e.g. PowerPoint presentation, pen and paper drawing) with the researcher, lasting about 30 minutes.

Total estimated time to participate in study is three and a half hours.

Risks of being in the study

- The risks of participating in this study are minimal.
- This research process may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable. If you wish to discuss the information above or any other risks you may experience, you may ask questions now or call the Principal Investigator listed on the front page of this form.

Benefits There are no direct benefits of being in the study but side benefits may include the potential to reflect more deeply on the student teaching process and contribute to the body of knowledge about how language teachers learn to teach.

Compensation:

- You will receive a $25 Amazon gift card.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:

- With your consent, the interview will be audio recorded and the artifact creation will be videoed.
    - The digital audio/video recording files will be named so that no personally identifying information is used;
    - digital files will be password-protected on a password-protected laptop;
    - the audio and video recordings will be heard/viewed only for research purposes by the researcher;
    - the audio and video recordings will be erased after they are transcribed or coded;
    - all electronic data will be labeled with pseudonyms and in password-protected files;
    - all hard copies of documents will have identifying details blacked-out and will be stored in locked files cabinets in a locked.
- The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin, members of the Institutional Review Board, and (study sponsors, if any) have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study please ask now. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page.

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature:_____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator:_____ Date: _____

APPENDIX A2: STUDENT TEACHER RECRUITMENT EMAIL

Dear Student Teacher:

Because you will be student teaching Fall 2011, you have been chosen to participate in a study of how language teachers experience student teaching. The purpose of this dissertation study is to gather more information about how this process unfolds, how student teachers make sense of their practicum experience, and how languages are taught at the K-12 level. Your participation in this study will contribute much valuable information in an area of research that is still growing.

This dissertation study is about how non-native speakers of the language they teach experience student teaching. You are eligible to participate in this study if you self-identify as a non-native speaker of the language you are about to speak (e.g. you grew up speaking English and will teach French).

Your decision to participate in this study is completely voluntary. You are not required to participate in this study and declining to participate will result in no negative effects. If you choose to participate, you will receive a $25 Amazon gift card. For this research project, you will be asked to participate in five interviews before, during, and after the fall semester interview lasting approximately 30 minutes each, audio and/or video recorded with your consent. More detailed information may be found on the attached consent form. All interview notes will be stored in a locked file cabinet in a locked office. Any electronic data will be stored securely on the researcher's password protected computer. Your name, your cooperating school's name, and any other identifying details will be masked.

The informed consent document detailing the risks, procedures and involvement of this study are attached as a PDF; please read through them carefully. If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this research, please ask the researcher via

email (knconroy@mail.utexas.edu) or telephone (512-XXX-XXXX) in the next week and a half. Please read and save the attached consent form should you plan to participate.

If you do choose to participate, please copy and paste the following sentence into an email reply "I, [First Name, Last Name], consent to participate in the study entitled 'Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages' and understand my rights as a study participant."

The results of this study will be used as the basis for a doctoral dissertation. They may also be reported in educational journals or future educational conferences. If you have any questions or concerns about the nature of this study, please contact Kelly Conroy (knconroy@mail.utexas.edu or 512-XXX-XXXX).

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

Thank you for considering cooperating in this research.

Sincerely,

Kelly Conroy

Ph.D. Candidate, Foreign Language Education

APPENDIX A3: SEMINAR PROFESSOR CONSENT

Title: Learning to Teaching and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages
IRB PROTOCOL #2011-06-0111
Conducted By: Kelly Conroy
Of The University of Texas at Austin: *Foreign Language Education* 512-XXX-XXXX

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research will also describe this study to you and answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this consent for your records.

The purpose of this study is to better understand how student teachers of Languages Other Than English experience their student teaching semester.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

- Participate in a confidential interview with the researcher

Total estimated time to participate in study is 45 minutes.

Risks of being in the study

- The risks of participating in this study are minimal.
- This research process may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable. If you wish to discuss the information above or any other risks you may experience, you may ask questions now or call the Principal Investigator listed on the front page of this form.

Benefits There are no direct benefits to being in the study. Nonetheless, participation may include the potential to reflect more deeply on the student teaching process and contribute to the body of knowledge about how language teachers learn to teach.

Compensation:

- You will receive a $15 Amazon gift card.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:

- With your consent, the interview will be audio recorded.
    - The digital recording files will be named so that no personally identifying information is used;
    - digital files will be password-protected on a password-protected laptop
    - the audio recordings will be heard only for research purposes by the researcher;
    - the audio recordings will be erased after they are transcribed or coded.

- The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin and members of the Institutional Review Board have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study please ask now. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page.

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

Please save and print a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. If you feel comfortable agreeing to participate in this study, please respond go the researcher's email with the following statement:

"I, [First Name, Last Name], consent to participate in the study entitled 'Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages."

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature:_____ Date: _____

_____ Date: _____
Signature of Person Obtaining Consent

Signature of Investigator:_____ Date: _____

APPENDIX A4: COOPERATING TEACHER CONSENT

Title: Learning to Teaching and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages
IRB PROTOCOL #2011-06-0111
Conducted By: Kelly Conroy
Of The University of Texas at Austin: *Foreign Language Education* 512-XXX-XXXX

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research will also describe this study to you and answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this consent for your records.

The purpose of this study is to better understand how student teachers of Languages Other Than English experience their student teaching semester.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

- Participate in a confidential interview with the researcher

Total estimated time to participate in study is 45 minutes.

Risks of being in the study

- The risks of participating in this study are minimal.
- This research process may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable. If you wish to discuss the information above or any other risks you may experience, you may ask questions now or call the Principal Investigator listed on the front page of this form.

Benefits There are no direct benefits to being in the study. Nonetheless, participation may include the potential to reflect more deeply on the student teaching process and contribute to the body of knowledge about how language teachers learn to teach.

Compensation:

- You will be given a $15 Amazon gift card upon completion of your interview.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:

- With your consent, the interview will be audio recorded.
    - The digital recording files will be named so that no personally identifying information is used;
    - digital files will be password-protected on a password-protected laptop
    - the audio recordings will be heard only for research purposes by the researcher;
    - the audio recordings will be erased after they are transcribed or coded.

- The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin and members of the Institutional Review Board have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study please ask now. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page.

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

Please save and print a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. If you feel comfortable agreeing to participate in this study, please respond go the researcher's email with the following statement:

"I, [First Name, Last Name], consent to participate in the study entitled 'Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages."

APPENDIX A5: SEMINAR BLOG CONSENT

Title: Learning to Teaching and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages
IRB PROTOCOL #2011-06-0111
Conducted By: Kelly Conroy
Of The University of Texas at Austin: *Foreign Language Education* 512-XXX-XXXX

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research will also describe this study to you and answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this consent for your records.

The purpose of this study is to better understand how student teachers of Languages Other Than English who are non-native speakers of the language they teach experience their student teaching semester.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

- Allow the researcher access to your online assignments and blog postings and comments as assigned in your EDC 350S course.

Total estimated time to participate in study is 0 hours.

Risks of being in the study

- The risks of participating in this study are minimal.
- This research process may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable. If you wish to discuss the information above or any other risks you may experience, you may ask questions now or call the Principal Investigator listed on the front page of this form.

Benefits There are no direct benefits of being in the study but side benefits may include the potential to reflect more deeply on the student teaching process and contribute to the body of knowledge about how language teachers learn to teach.

Compensation:

- There is no compensation for participating.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:

- With your consent, the interview will be audio recorded and the artifact creation will be videoed.
    - All digital files will be named so that no personally identifying information is used;
    - digital files will be password-protected on a password-protected laptop;

    - all electronic data will be labeled with pseudonyms and in password-protected files;
    - all hard copies of documents will have identifying details blacked-out and will be stored in locked files cabinets in a locked.
- The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin, members of the Institutional Review Board, and (study sponsors, if any) have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study please ask now. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page.

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

Please save and print a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. If you feel comfortable agreeing to participate in this study, please respond to the researcher's email with the following statement:

"I, [First Name, Last Name], consent to participate in the study entitled 'Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages."

You may also sign this hard copy below.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature:_____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator:_____ Date: _____

APPENDIX B: TBALLI

Teacher Beliefs About Language Learning

Below are beliefs some people have about learning foreign languages. Read each statement and then decide if you:

1) strongly agree, 2) agree, 3) neither agree nor disagree, 4) disagree, 5) strongly disagree.

Questions 4 and 11 are slightly different and you should mark them as indicated. There are no right or wrong answers, just opinions. Feel free to add any notes or thoughts you have as you read through the statements.

1. Using technology is important in language teaching.

2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign

language.

3. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.

4. The language I am planning to teach is:

    1 a very easy language.
    2. an easy language
    3. a language of medium difficulty
    4. a difficult language
    5. a very difficult language

5. It is ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.

6. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language.

7. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language learn another one.

8. Anyone who is fluent in a language can teach it well.

9. Teachers just have to do some tasks in English.

10. You shouldn't say anything in the language until you can say it correctly.

11. It someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent?

1. less than a year
2. 1-2 years
3. 3-5 years
4. 5-10 years
5. You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day

12. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.

13. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.

14. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later.

15. The more target language a student hears, the better they will learn.

16. Language learning can be aided by using technology.

17. Ultimately, it is up to the student to learn the language.

18. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.

19. A teacher can do a lot to help a student learn.

20. Some languages are easier to learn than others.

21. It is more important to have good teaching skills than good language skills.

22. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.

23. Any student who makes an effort can be a successful language learner.

24. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.

25. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.

APPENDIX C1: SAMPLE STUDENT TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

Interview #1

1. Tell me a little about how and why you started learning languages.

2. What made you want to become a language teacher?

3. Do you identify more as a teacher or a language teacher? Why?

4. What things helped you learn the most as a language student?

5. Describe the best and worst language teachers you had and why they were so good/bad.

6. What has been one of your proudest moments/accomplishments using/studying [language]?

7. Do you ever have any concerns about your [language]? Describe them.

8. Have you been abroad? What was that like when it came to using the language? How about the culture?

9. Some say that language and culture cannot be separated; what are your thoughts on this?

Interview #2

1. How would you describe good teaching? Good language teaching?

2. How do you envision yourself as a student teacher? Why do you envision yourself that way?

3. For you, what is your top priority as a language teacher as you start student teaching?

4. What are some things you hope to learn from teaching?

5. ACTFL says that every language teacher should use at least 90% target language for every class. What do you think about that goal? (Should it be more or less for: grammar, culture, classroom management, etc.)? What are your goals for target language use?

6. Can you tell me what you know about the school you'll be teaching in?

7. Have you met your cooperating teacher yet? What is he/she like?

8. Can you share with me your state of mind as you think about starting to student teach?

Interviews #3 and #4

1. How has your student teaching experience gone so far?

2. In my interview notes from last time, you stated X about how you anticipated teaching. Has this changed or stayed the same for you? Why do you think that is?

3. What has been the role of your cooperating teacher? Would you describe him/her as more hands-off or hands-on? How does that work with your teaching?

4. How has using [target language] going?

5. Let's look at your lesson plan journal now. Can you walk me through a lesson or two and let me know what you thought of it?

6. When you think about the next few weeks of student teaching, is there anything you'd like to do differently or keep doing the same? Why is that?

Interview #5

1. For this interview, I'd like to make an artifact with you to create a visual representation about what the student teaching experience was like. You may use craft materials or a computer application to design any type of image you'd like. Then I'd like you to walk me through what it means to you and how it represents your student teaching.

2. What is your biggest take-away from student teaching that you think will help you with your first job?

3. Thinking about your language use, would you say it has improved, declined, or stayed about the same over the semester? Why do you think that is? Do you think that will change or stay the same after a few years of teaching?

4. What are some goals you have for your first teaching job?

5. What makes you most excited about your first job? Does anything concern you?

6. Thinking back on your entire college experience, what comes to mind as most helpful to preparing you to teach? Why is that?

APPENDIX C2: COOPERATING TEACHER/SUPERVISOR INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. Tell me a little about yourself as a language teacher/student teacher supervisor.

2. Tell me why and how you became a cooperating teacher.

3. What do you enjoy the most about being a cooperating teacher?

4. What are the biggest challenges of being a cooperating teacher?

5. Describe the ideal student teacher.

6. Can you share some common areas of struggle or frustration for the average student teacher?

7. If you could change the way the student teachers are prepared, what would it be and why?

APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL LETTER

OFFICE OF RESEARCH SUPPORT

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

P.O. Box 7426, Austin, Texas 78713 (512) 471-8871 -FAX (512 471-8873)
North Office Building A, Suite 5.200 (Mail code A3200)

FWA # 00002030

Date: **08/11/11**

PI(s): **Kelly N Conroy** Department & Mail Code: **Foreign Language Education**

Title: **Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn: The Experiences of Non-Native Speaker Student Teachers of Languages**

IRB EXPEDITED APPROVAL: IRB Protocol # **2011-06-0111**

Dear: **Kelly N Conroy**

In accordance with the Federal Regulations the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the above referenced research study and found it met the requirements for approval under the Expedited category noted below for the following period of time: **08/11/2011 - 08/10/2012**. *Expires 12 a.m. [midnight] of this date.*

Expedited category of approval:

☐ **(1)** Clinical studies of drugs and medical devices only when condition (a) or (b) is met. (a) Research on drugs for which an investigational new drug application (21 CFR Part 312) is not required. (Note: Research on marketed drugs that significantly increases the risks or decreases the acceptability of the risks associated with the use of the product is not eligible for expedited review). (b) Research on medical devices for which (i) an investigational device exemption application (21 CFR Part 812) is not required; or (ii) the medical device is cleared/approved for marketing and the medical device is being used in accordance with its cleared/approved labeling.

☐ **(2)** Collection of blood samples by finger stick, heel stick, ear stick, or venipuncture as follows: (a) from healthy, non-pregnant adults who weigh at least 110 pounds. For these subjects, the amounts drawn may not exceed 550 ml in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week; or (b) from other adults and children2, considering the age, weight, and health of the subjects, the collection procedure, the amount of blood to be collected, and the frequency with which it will be collected. For these subjects, the amount drawn may not exceed the lesser of 50 ml or 3 ml per kg in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week.

☐ **(3)** Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by Non-invasive means. Examples:
(a) hair and nail clippings in a non-disfiguring manner;
(b) deciduous teeth at time of exfoliation or if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction;
(c) permanent teeth if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction;
(d) excreta and external secretions (including sweat);

(e) uncannulated saliva collected either in an un-stimulated fashion or stimulated by chewing gumbase or wax or by applying a dilute citric solution to the tongue;
(f) placenta removed at delivery;
(g) amniotic fluid obtained at the time of rupture of the membrane prior to or during labor;
(h) supra- and subgingival dental plaque and calculus, provided the collection procedure is not more invasive than routine prophylactic scaling of the teeth and the Process is accomplished in accordance with accepted prophylactic techniques;
(i) mucosal and skin cells collected by buccal scraping or swab, skin swab, or mouth washings;
(j) sputum collected after saline mist nebulization.

☐ **(4)** Collection of data through noninvasive procedures (not involving general anesthesia or sedation) routinely employed in clinical practice, excluding procedures involving x-rays or microwaves. Where medical devices are employed, they must be cleared/approved for marketing. (Studies intended to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of the medical device are not generally eligible for expedited review, including studies of cleared medical devices for new indications).
Examples:
(a) physical sensors that are applied either to the surface of the body or at a distance and do not involve input of significant amounts of energy into the subject or an invasion of the subject's privacy;
(b) weighing or testing sensory acuity;
(c) magnetic resonance imaging;
(d) electrocardiography, electroencephalography, thermography, detection of naturally occurring radioactivity, electroretinography, ultrasound, diagnostic infrared imaging, doppler blood flow, and echocardiography;
(e) moderate exercise, muscular strength testing, body composition assessment, and flexibility testing where appropriate given the age, weight, and health of the individual.

☐ **(5)** Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for non-research purposes (such as medical treatment or diagnosis). (NOTE: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt).

☒ **(6)** Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.

☒ **(7)** Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies. (NOTE: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) and (b)(3). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt).

☒ Use the attached approved informed consent.

☒ You have been granted a Waiver of Documentation of Consent according to 45 CFR 46.117 and/or 21 CFR 56.109(c)(1).

☐ You have been granted a Waiver of Informed Consent according to 45 CFR 46.116(d).

Responsibilities of the Principal Investigator:

1. Report immediately to the IRB any unanticipated problems.

2. Ensure the proposed changes in the approved research during the IRB approval period will not be applied without IRB review and approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject. Changes in approved research implemented without IRB review and approval initiated to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject must be promptly reported to the IRB, and will be reviewed under the unanticipated problems policy to determine whether the change was consistent with ensuring the subjects continued welfare.

3. Report any significant findings that become known in the course of the research that might affect the willingness of subjects to continue to participate.

4. Ensure that only persons formally approved by the IRB enroll subjects.

5. Use only a currently approved consent form (remember that approval periods are for 12 months or less).

6. Protect the confidentiality of all persons and personally identifiable data, and train your staff and collaborators on policies and procedures for ensuring the privacy and confidentiality of subjects and their information.

7. Submit for review and approval by the IRB all modifications to the protocol or consent form(s) prior to the implementation of the change.

8. Submit a Continuing Review Application for continuing review by the IRB. Federal regulations require IRB review of on-going projects no less than once a year (a Continuing Review Application and a reminder letter will be sent to you two months before your expiration date). If a reminder is not received from Office of Research Support (ORS) about your upcoming continuing review, it is still the primary responsibility of the Principal Investigator not to conduct research activities on or after the expiration date. The Continuing Review Application must be submitted, reviewed and approved, before the expiration date.

9. Upon completion of the research study, a Closure Report must be submitted to the ORS.

10. Include the IRB study number on all future correspondence relating to this protocol.

If you have any questions call or contact the ORS (Mail Code A3200) or via e-mail at orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

Sincerely,

Jody L. Jensen, Ph.D.
Professor
Chair, Institutional Review Board

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